THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME VII.

Indore (*Indor*).—Large Native State in Málwá, Central India, composing the territories of the Holkar dynasty. The political relations of the Indore State are conducted direct with the Agent of the Governor-General for Central India. The name of the State is taken from that of the capital, INDORE city. Area, 8400 square miles. In 1878, the population was estimated (without enumeration) at 635,000. Population (1881) 1,054,237; density of population, 125 persons per square mile. The revenue of the Maháráj́á was £707,440 in 1881–82.

The State consists of several isolated tracts. But since 1861, arrangements have been made to concentrate the territory as much as possible; and lands which were formerly held by Holkar in Ahmadnagar District of Bombay Presidency and in the Deccan have been exchanged for lands in Nimáwar, and for the *parganás* of Barwái, Dhurgáon, Khasrawar, and Mandesar, bordering on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river and the tract in which Indore city is situated. This territory, within which is the British cantonment of Mhow (Mau), is bounded on the north by part of Sindhia's dominions; on the east by the States of Dewás and Dhár and the District of Nimár; on the south by Khándesh District of Bombay Presidency; and on the west by Barwáni and Dhár. It lies between 21° 24′ and 24° 14′ N. lat., and between 74° 28′ and 77° 10′ E. long. Its length from north to south is 120 miles, its breadth 82 miles; and it is nearly bisected by the Narbadá river. The next largest portion of Holkar's dominions is that annexed to the town of RAMPURA, north of Indore, lying between 24° 3′ and 24° 40′ N. lat., and between 75° 6′ and 76° 12′ E. long. This tract is 70 miles in length from east to west, and

Population.—The first attempt at a systematic Census was made in 1881, before which date all estimates of the population were more or less conjectural. The ruling class in Indore are Maráthás. There are the usual other sub-divisions of Hindus, a few Muhammadans, and a considerable number of the aboriginal tribes of Gonds and Bhíls. With the exception of these wild races, the inhabitants of Indore and Málwá are a cultivating rather than a fighting population. The regular army (*ain fauj*) of the Mahárájá is chiefly recruited from Northern India, beyond his own territories, and contains a large proportion of men from the British Provinces of Oudh, the North-West, and the Punjab. The Vindhya and Sátpura ranges are the home of the Bhíls, where they have been settled from time immemorial. The Bhíl race is one of the wildest in India, living for the most part on jungle products and game, or on the plunder of more civilised neighbours. They have, however, of late been brought into more peaceable habits of life; and many are now employed as soldiers and police, in which capacity they have proved themselves useful and trustworthy. The Málwá Bhíl corps is a British force (1881) 527 strong, supplying detachments to the Sátpura Hills, Rájpur, Barwáni, and Ratlám. The corps supports a regimental school, some of the pupils in which are Bhíls. The Bhíls are not, however, utilized in the regular army of Holkar.

In 1866–67, the total population of the Indore State was put down at 744,822, while in 1878 it was estimated at 635,000. The first regular Census of 1881 returned a total population for the whole State of 1,054,237. These are sub-divided as follows:—Males, 559,616, or 53 per cent.; females, 494,621, or 47 per cent. The State contains 3734 towns and villages; occupied houses, 193,662; persons per occupied house, 5·44. The religious division of the people is thus shown in the Census of 1881:—Hindus, 892,675, or 84·6 per cent.; Muhammadans, 72,747, or 6·85 per cent.; Jains, 1645; Pársís, 127; Christians, 52. 601, or ·5 per cent., are returned as Sikhs, and 86,390, or 8·1 per cent., as aborigines—mostly Gonds (7312) and Bhíls (55,582). Separated into castes, there are 78,750 Bráhmans, 93,760 Rájputs, 43,945 Chamárs, 36,053 Gújurs, 45,940 Baniyás, 25,451 Kunbís or cultivators; and other low castes. There are 7 towns with from one to two thousand inhabitants; 4 with from two to three thousand; 4 with from three to five thousand; 1 with from five to ten thousand; and 1 with over fifty thousand.

Railways.—The principal public work undertaken of late years in Indore, has been the extension to this territory of the general railway system of India. A State Railway, at present managed by the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India line, under the Imperial Department of Public Works, runs from Khandwá junction (353 miles from Bombay) through Mhow (Mau) to Indore city, a distance of 85¾ miles. The

branch is known as the Holkar State Railway as far as Indore, and is on the metre gauge (3 feet $3\frac{3}{8}$ inches). The line was constructed by means of a loan of 100 *lákhs* of rupees (£1,000,000), made by the Mahárájá Holkar to the British Government for a period of 101 years, to bear interest at the rate of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per annum. The Mahárájá also ceded the land required for the railway, free of charge; and the British Government has full civil and criminal jurisdiction, short of absolute sovereignty, over it. The Mahárájá receives one-half of the surplus profit of the line, in excess of the $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. interest on the capital invested. The principal engineering works on the railway are the ascent of the Vindhya escarpment already referred to, and the construction of a bridge across the Narbadá, with 14 spans of 200 feet wrought-iron girders. The bridge was opened in October 1876. From Indore the line passes through part of Sindhia's dominions, Ratlám, Jaora, and Mewár, connecting Indore with Nasírábád (Nuseerábád), and finally with Delhi and Agra. This northern section was made out of a loan to the British Government, ultimately amounting to $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, by the Mahárájá Sindhia, at 4 per cent. interest, for the construction of two lines through his dominions, namely from Gwalior to Agra, and from Indore to Nemach. Both lines are completed. The Indore-Nemach line has been amalgamated with the Rájputána State Railway, and the whole line, from Indore to Nasírábád, is known as the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway. In 1881, a line between Chittor and Nasírábád was opened for public traffic.

The chief means of road communication are the Bombay and Agra Trunk Road, which runs through Indore and Mhow, with a branch to Dhár. Another road, 80 miles in length, joins Indore with Khandwá, crossing the Narbadá by the railway bridge. A metalled roadway is also in course of construction between Mhow and Nasírábád.

Industries.—At Indore there is in constant work a steam cotton mill belonging to the Mahárájá. The weight of cloth produced in 1881 was 565,349 lbs. In 1878, the number of spindles was 10,000. Opium manufacture is another important industry; and in 1880–81, 13,837 chests were exported from Indore, yielding a revenue of £70, now of £65 (1885), per chest to the British Government at the border customs stations. In 1882–83, the number of chests was 12,477, and the British revenue, £873,390. The payment of revenue is made on weighment of the chests ($140\frac{1}{4}$ lbs.), the rate levied being now £65 per chest. The Governor-General's Agent is *ex officio* Opium Agent for the States of Central India and a part of Rájputána. The central weighing office is in Indore, with seven subordinate assistant agencies in the principal local marts, Ujjain, Jaora, Dhár, Bhopál, Chittor, Mandesar, and Ratlám. All of these are on lines of railway, except Dhár. Much of the best land in Indore is taken up for opium,

which is the best paying crop. The export of cereals, although important in years of exceptional productiveness, is not considerable in ordinary seasons. Wheat is probably destined, however, to become a large staple trade, notwithstanding the export duty levied on it by the Mahárájá.

History.—The history of Indore, as a separate State, only dates from the first half of the last century. The Holkar family are Maráthás of the Dhángar or goat-herd tribe. The founder of the dynasty was Malhár Ráo, the son of a shepherd, who was born about 1693, in the village of Hol or Hal on the Nira river in the Deccan, from whence the family derives the surname of Holkar, the affix 'kar' or 'kur' signifying inhabitant. In his youth Malhár Ráo abandoned his hereditary peaceful occupation, and joined a small body of cavalry in the service of a Maráthá noble. He early distinguished himself; and about 1724 he entered the service of the Peshwá as the commander of 500 horse. After this, his rise was rapid, and four years later he was rewarded by large tracts of land, the nucleus of the present principality. In 1732 he filled the post of principal general to the Peshwá, and defeated the army of the Mughal viceroy of Málwá. Indore, with the greater portion of the conquered country, was assigned to Malhár Ráo for the support of his troops, and in 1735 he was appointed commander of the Maráthá forces north of the Narbadá. During the next twelve years he was constantly employed,—in campaigns against the Mughals, in assisting at the expulsion of the Portuguese from Bassein, and in aiding the Nawáb Wazír Safdar Jang in preserving Oudh from the Rohillás. During all this time his possessions and influence rapidly increased, and raised him to a foremost position among the chiefs of India. At the battle of Pánípat in 1761, Malhár Ráo divided with Sindhia the command of the right wing of the Maráthá army. It is asserted that Malhár Ráo did not here fight with his old spirit. He probably foresaw the event of the battle; at any rate, he retreated with his contingent before the defeat had become a rout.

After Pánípat, Malhár Ráo retired to Central India, and employed himself in reducing his vast possessions to coherence and order. He died in 1765, leaving a principality bringing in an annual revenue of three-quarters of a million sterling. He was succeeded by his grandson, Málí Ráo, a lad who died insane nine months after his accession. The administration was then assumed by the famous Ahalya Bái, Máli Ráo's mother, who prosperously ruled the State in conjunction with her commander-in-chief Túkají Ráo, for thirty years. She died in 1795, and was not long survived by Túkají Ráo; after whose death the power of the house of Holkar was nearly extinguished by family quarrels, and by the dissensions which distracted the whole Maráthá confederacy at the close of the last century. The fortunes of the family were,

however, restored by Jaswant Ráo, an illegitimate son of Túkají, who, after a signal reverse from the army of Sindhia, employed European officers to reorganize and discipline his army. In 1802 he defeated the united army of Sindhia and the Peshwá at the battle of Poona (Púna), and possessed himself of that city. The treaty of Bassein between the Peshwá and the British Government, resulted in the Peshwá being restored to his capital as a virtual vassal of the British; and Jaswant Ráo returned to his own domininions.

In the Maráthá war of 1803, Jaswant Ráo Holkar held aloof, apparently intending to take advantage of the hostilities to aggrandize himself at Sindhia's expense. His schemes, however, were rendered hopeless by the treaty of Sarjí Anjengáon; and after making a series of inadmissible proposals for an alliance, Holkar seems to have hastily determined, unaided and alone, to provoke hostilities with the British. In the war which followed, Holkar obtained a temporary advantage by compelling Colonel Monson to retreat with great loss. Holkar at once invaded British territory. Here, however, fortune deserted him, and, after successive defeats, he was forced to retire upon the Punjab, closely followed by Lord Lake, to whom, in December 1805, he surrendered himself, and signed a treaty on the banks of the Beas (Biás) river. By the treaty he gave up the territories which had been occupied by the British in the course of the war. These, however, were restored to him in the following year. Jaswant Ráo afterwards became insane, and died in 1811, leaving the regency in the hands of a favourite concubine, Tulsí Bái, during the minority of his son, Malhár Ráo Holkar. For some years, the State was torn by internal dissensions, and overrun by Pindári marauders. The army mutinied, and the queen regent petitioned that she and the youthful Rájá might be received under British protection. While negotiations were proceeding, however, war broke out between the British and the Peshwá. A hostile bearing was assumed by the Indore Court. The queen regent was seized and murdered. Her murder was followed by the complete defeat of Holkar's army at Mehidpur, and the treaty of Mandesar on the 6th January 1818, which deprived him of much territory, and reduced him to the position of a feudatory prince. The terms of this treaty still govern the relations of the British Government with the State.

Malhár Ráo Holkar died in 1833, at the age of 28, without issue, but his widow adopted, as his son, a child, Mártand Ráo. This adoption proved unpopular; and a few weeks afterwards, Mártand Ráo was summarily deposed by a cousin, Hari Ráo, who had been in prison since 1819, in consequence of an unsuccessful rebellion, and whose accession was welcomed by the troops and people. His long imprisonment had, however, unfitted him to govern, and his reign was a period of intrigue and disorder. Hari Ráo died in 1843, and his adopted

son, who succeeded him, survived only for a few months, dying unmarried and without an heir. The selection was declared to rest with the British Government. Túkají Ráo (the present Mahárájá), the second son of Bhao Holkar, at that time eleven years of age, was chosen and formally installed. During his minority, the administration was conducted by a regency; but in 1852, the young Mahárájá attained his majority, and was invested with the entire management of the affairs of the State. Since 1852 there has been little or no change in the political relations of Indore with the British Government. During the Mutiny of 1857, a considerable portion of the State troops rose against the British, and besieged Sir Henry Durand, the English political Resident at Indore. With some difficulty the Resident succeeded in retiring to Bhopál with the English women and children. The Mahárájá remained loyal. His rebellious troops a few weeks afterwards laid down their arms, and order was restored.

The relations of Indore with the British Government are—that the British undertake to protect the State; and to mediate in case of differences with other States. The Mahárájá Holkar on his part engaged to abstain from direct communication with other States; to limit his military establishments; to employ no Europeans or Americans in his service without the consent of the British Government; and to afford every facility towards the purchase and transport of supplies for the auxiliary force to be maintained for his protection. The Mahárájá has received a *sanad* of adoption. He has been created a Knight Grand Commander of the Star of India, a Companion of the Order of the Indian Empire, and is entitled permanently to a salute of 19 guns in British territory, and to a salute of 21 guns in his own territory. The present Mahárájá enjoys a personal salute of 21 guns in British territory, and has been made a Counsellor of the Empress. Indore maintains a military establishment of 3100 regular and 2150 irregular infantry, 2100 regular and 1200 irregular cavalry, and 340 artillerymen, with nominally 24 field-guns equipped. As already stated, the regular army of the Mahárájá Holkar (*aín fauj*) is recruited chiefly from the British Provinces of Oudh and the North-West. There are also two companies of Sikhs from the Punjab. The Mahárájá has powers of life and death.

Administration.—The revenue of the State is steadily increasing. In 1875, the revenue amounted to £459,800, and the expenditure to £405,100. In 1878, the revenue was returned at £512,300, and the expenditure at £416,600. By 1881-82, the revenue of the State had increased to £707,440; the expenditure for the same period being £527,170. Of the latter sum, £120,810 defrayed the charges for the palace establishment; £172,320 the charges for the army and police; £74,480 the charges for public works; £4410 for education; £5180 for courts of justice; £1190 for the

postal system; and £2940 for hospitals and dispensaries. In 1881–82, the cost of the State-jail system was £2620. The revenue items of importance in 1881–82 were as follow:—Land revenue, £449,400; customs, £73,170; *abkári*, or excise, £11,280; tributes, £15,850; stamps, £4770; fines, £9880; post-office, £680; mint, £2790; and miscellaneous, £40,650.

In 1881–82, there were altogether 107 schools in Indore territory; the number of pupils was 4942, or 353 more than in the year preceding. Within the limits of the Residency at Indore is situated the Rájkumár College, for the education of the sons of the native chiefs, nobles, and upper classes in Central India, affiliated to the Calcutta University. But the Rájkumár College, although situated at Indore, has no special connection with the State. It is mainly supported from imperial and local British funds. The College educates from 12 to 20 sons of Chiefs; and the Principal, by desire of the Chiefs, exercises a general supervision over the more important English-teaching schools in Central India. There is also a Residency School for the sons of persons residing within the limits of the British Residency at Indore. It has upwards of 200 pupils. The Canadian Presbyterian Mission has recently established another school within the Residency limits. The Mahárájá has also a High School at Indore, teaching up to the matriculation standard, which is chiefly attended by the sons of the official class (Deccani Bráhmans) and bankers of the city. The Mahárájá's College at Indore educates almost exclusively Deccani Bráhmans. At Mandesar and Khargáon there are English schools; and in the Maráthí schools at Maheswar, Rámpura, Kanod, and Barwái, English classes have been formed. The law and Sanskrit schools were established in 1875; there are three girls' schools in the State, two of them at Indore city, well attended. There are, besides, 9 Maráthí, 36 Hindí, 8 Sanskrit, 9 Persian, and 14 Hindí-Maráthí schools. The State expenditure on education in 1881–82 was £4410.

The administration of justice is carried on by means of a *Sadr* or central court at Indore, presided over by English-speaking native judges. Three subsidiary *zilá* courts are also established at Indore, Mandesar, and Rámpura. At each of these three places there is a State jail.

Climate.—The climate of Indore State is sultry, the temperature ranging from 60° to 90° F. within doors. The annual rainfall at Indore city during the fourteen years ending 1881 averaged 36·71 inches; the rainfall in 1881 was 31·7 inches. The city has a charitable hospital, leper asylum, and dispensary. Cholera frequently ravages the State.

Indore.—Chief town of Indore State, and capital of the Mahárájá Holkar's territories; situated on the left bank of the Katki river, near its junction with the Khán river, in lat. 22° 42′ N., and long. 75° 54′ E. Height above sea-level, 1786 feet. Indore is the residence of the

Mahárájá, and of the Political Agent to the Governor-General for Central India. The town is of modern date, having been built by Ahalya Bái (*circ.* 1770), after the death of Malhár Ráo, the founder of the State. The former capital of the tract within which the city is situated, previous to the Maráthá invasion, was Kampail, 18 miles to the south-east. Kampail has dwindled to a village. The Court of Holkar was transferred to Indore in 1818; and now Indore is a prosperous city connected with the railway systems of Bombay and Northern and Eastern India. The population of the city in 1881 was 75,401, of whom 41,484 are males and 33,917 females. Hindus numbered 57,234; Muhammadans, 16,674; 'others,' 1493.

Indore stands on an elevated and healthy site. Of recent years modern improvements have been introduced. Roads have been metalled, drains built, the water-supply cared for, and the principal streets lighted. The palace of the Mahárájá, with its lofty, many-storied gateway, is conspicuous from every part of the city. Among the chief objects of interest are the Lál Bágh or garden, with its pleasant summer palace and interesting collection of animals; the mint, high school, market-place, reading-room, dispensary, and large cotton mill. The Mahárájá takes a keen interest in his cotton factory, and has spent a large sum of money upon it. To the west of the city is an antelope preserve, where sport with hunting-leopards may be enjoyed. The railway station is about a mile from the palace.

Apart from the town of Indore, but adjoining it, on the other side of the railway, is the British Residency. This term comprises not only the mansion and park of the Governor-General's Agent for Central India, but also an area assigned by treaty, within what are known as the Residency Limits. A *bázár* of some importance has grown up within this area, and the freedom from transit duties along the British Trunk Road is developing an export trade in grain, etc., by the railway. The central opium stores and weighing agency, referred to under INDORE STATE, also lie in this little tract. The hospital within the Residency Limits is one of the most useful and successful institutions of the kind in India. It has a special reputation for its major operations, which number about five hundred per annum; one special feature of its surgical cases being the manufacture of new noses for women who have suffered the penalty in Native States for conjugal infidelity, real or supposed. The aggrieved or jealous husband throws his suspected wife down and cuts off her nose. The woman then repairs to the hospital at Indore, sometimes with her amputated nose carefully wrapped up in a napkin. The process of reproduction is generally successful, and this together with other operations in surgery has earned a high reputation for the hospital throughout the Native States of Central

India and Rájputána, as far as the confines of the Bombay Districts. The Residency itself is a handsome stone mansion, approached by a rather imposing flight of steps, and surrounded by gardens tastefully laid out. From this stretches a park of considerable extent. A little river, the Khán, has been utilized to form a sylvan retreat of wood, water, and creeping plants, of almost unique beauty in India.

The height of Indore above the *ghúts* or Vindhya escarpment which rises from the Narbadá valley, and 1786 feet above sea-level, renders the climate cool and agreeable, with the exception of two really hot months in summer. A body of native and European troops acts as the escort to the Governor-General's Agent, and is provided with a range of spacious barracks. Several small bungalows are occupied by the British Residency staff and other Government servants. The Rájkumár College, where the young chiefs and nobles of Central India are educated, is situated within the jurisdiction of the Residency. It has been referred to, along with other local institutions, in the preceding article on Indore State.

Indore Agency.—The collective name given to the three Native States of Central India comprised therein, namely, INDORE, DEWAS, and BAGLI (all of which see separately), under the superintendence of the Government of India, through an official styled 'Governor-General's Agent for Central India.'

Indori.—Small hill torrent in Gurgáon District, Punjab. Rises beyond the boundary in Rájputána, on the Alwar (Ulwur) side of the Mewát Hills; runs due northward into British territory; passes the towns of Táoru and Bahora; and finally, after joining the Sáhibi, falls into the Najafgarh *jhíl.* The Indori frequently floods the country at the foot of the hills. There is a second and smaller stream of the same name, which falls into the Sáhibi, some six miles above the junction of its larger namesake. Both are mere torrents, flowing only after rain.

Indus (Sanskrit, *Sindhu;* Greek, *Sinthus;* Latin, *Sindus*).—River in Northern India. The Indus rises in an unexplored region on the northern slopes of the sacred Kailás Mountain, the Elysium of ancient Sanskrit literature; and as the Sutlej (Satlej) is in the Aryan tradition supposed to issue from the mouth of a crocodile, so the Indus is said to spring from the mouth of a lion. On the south of the Kailás Mountain rises the Sutlej, the great feeder of the Indus, which unites with it after a separate course of about 1000 miles. The Indus rises in lat. 32° N. and long. 81° E., enters the Punjab (Panjáb) in lat. 34° 25′ N. and long. 72° 51′ E., leaves the Punjab in lat. 28° 27′ N. and long. 69° 47′ E., enters Sind in lat. 28° 26′ N. and long. 69° 47′ E., and finally falls into the Arabian Sea in lat. 23° 58′ N. and long. 67° 30′ E. The drainage basin of the Indus is estimated at 372,700 square miles, and its total length at a little over 1800 miles. The towns of import-

ance on or near its banks in British territory are Karáchi (Kurrachee), Kotri, Haidarábád, Sehwán, Sukkur (Sakhar), Rohri, Mithánkot, Dera Ghází Khán, Dera Ismáil Khán, Kála Bágh, and Attock.

The first section of the course of the Indus lies outside British territory, and must be briefly dealt with here. The river rises in Tibet behind the great mountain wall of the Himálayas, which forms the northern boundary of India. Rising from the ring of lofty mountains about Lake Manásarowar, whence also the Sutlej, the Brahmaputra, and the Gogra spring, it flows north-west for about 160 miles under the name of Singh-ka-báb, until it receives the Ghar river on its south-western bank. A short distance below the junction of the Indus and the Ghar, it enters Kashmír, and continues north-west to Leh, where it is joined by the Zanskar river, and crossed by the great trade route into Central Asia *via* the Karakoram Pass. Early travellers like Dr. Thomson and Mr. Blane have described this portion of the Indus. The former found numerous hot springs, some of them with a temperature of 174° F., and exhaling a sulphurous gas. The Indus is supposed to have an elevation of 16,000 feet at its source. Shortly after it passes the Kashmír frontier, it drops to 14,000 feet, and at Leh is only about 11,278 feet above the level of the sea. The rapid stream dashes down gorges and wild mountain valleys; it is subject to tremendous floods; and in its lower and more level course it is swept by terrific blasts. Even in summer it is said to dwindle down to a fordable depth during the night, and during the course of the day to swell into an impassable torrent from the melting of the snows on the adjoining heights. Still flowing north-west through Kashmír territory, it passes near Iskardoh in Little Tibet, until in about lat. 34° 50′ N., and long. 74° 30′ E., it takes a turn southwards at an acute angle, receives the Gilgit river from the north, and shortly afterwards enters Kohistán near Gúr. It then passes for about 120 miles south-west through the wilds of Kohistán, until it reaches the Punjab frontier in lat. 34° 25′ N., and long. 72° 51′ E., near Derbend, at the western base of the Mahában mountain. The only point to which special allusion can be made in the long section of its course beyond British territory is the wonderful gorge by which the river bursts through the western ranges of the Himálayas. This gorge is near Iskardoh in Little Tibet (*i.e.* North-Western Kashmír), and is said to be 14,000 feet in sheer descent.

The Indus, on entering the Punjab, 812 miles from its source, is about 100 yards wide in August, navigable by rafts, but of no great depth, and studded with sandbanks and islands. It is fordable in many places during the cold weather; but floods or freshets are sudden, and Ranjít Singh is said to have lost a force, variously stated at from 1200 to 7000 horsemen, in crossing the river. Even the large and

solid ferry-boats which ply upon it are sometimes swept away. A little way above Attock, in Rawal Pindi District, it receives the Kábul river, which brings down the waters of Afghánistán. The two rivers have about an equal volume, both are very swift, and broken up with rocks. Their junction during floods is the scene of a wild confusion of waters. The Kábul river is navigable for about 40 miles above the confluence, but a rapid just above it renders the Indus impracticable.

Attock (Atak), the limit of the upward navigation of the Indus, forms the first important point on the Indus within British territory. By this time the river has flowed upwards of 860 miles, or nearly one-half of its total length, its further course to the sea being about 940 miles. It has fallen from its elevation of 16,000 feet at its source in Tibet to about 2000 feet, the height of Attock being 2079 feet. In the hot season, opposite the fort, its velocity is 13 miles an hour; and in the cold season, 5 to 7 miles. The rise of ordinary floods is from 5 to 7 feet in 24 hours only, and the maximum is 50 feet above cold-weather level. Its width varies greatly with the season; at one time over 250 yards, at another less than 100. The Indus is crossed at Attock by a bridge of boats and a ferry: in its upper course a *massak* or inflated skin is the usual means of transportation. The main trunk road to Pesháwar also crosses the river at Attock. By the opening of the Attock railway bridge across the Indus in May 1883, the chain of railway communication between Pesháwar, Bombay, and Calcutta was completed. The view from the railway bridge is a very striking one.

After leaving Attock, the Indus flows almost due south along the western side of the Punjab, parallel to the Suláimán Hills. The great north road from Sind to Bannu runs for several hundreds of miles close to its western bank; and another road from Multán (Mooltan) to Rawal Pindi almost parallel to its eastern bank. The river intersects the two frontier Districts of Dera Ismáil Khán and Dera Ghází Khán, with the Sind Ságar Doáb on its eastern bank, and only a narrow strip of British territory between it and the hill tribes of the Suláimán ranges on the west. Just above Mithánkot, in the south of Dera Ghází Khán District, the Indus receives the accumulated waters of the Punjab. Between the Indus and the Jumna (Jamuná) flow the five great streams from which the Punjab (Panj-áb, literally 'The land of the five waters') takes its name. These are the Jehlam (Jhelum), the Chenab, the Ravi, the Beas (Biás), and the Sutlej. After various junctions, these rivers all unite to form the river Panjnad, literally 'The five rivers.' The Panjnad marks for a short space the boundary between the Punjab and Baháwalpur State, and unites with the Indus near Mithánkot, about 490 miles from the sea. The breadth of the Indus above the confluence is about 600 yards, its velocity 5

miles an hour, its depth from 12 to 15 feet, and its estimated discharge 91,719 cubic feet per second. The breadth of the Panjnad above the point of junction is 1076 yards, with an equal depth of 12 to 15 feet, but a velocity of only 2 miles an hour. Its estimated discharge is 68,955 cubic feet per second. Below the junction the united stream, under the name of the Indus, has a breadth which varies from 2000 yards to several miles, according to the season of the year.

The whole course of the Indus through the Punjab is broken by islands and sandbanks, but some beautiful scenes are afforded along its banks, which, especially near Bukkur, abound with the date, acacia, pomegranate, and other trees. Mithánkot has an elevation of only 258 feet above the level of the sea. From Mithánkot the Indus forms the boundary between the Punjab and Baháwalpur State, until near Kashmor it enters Sind in lat. 28° 26′ N., and long. 69° 47′ E. Kashmor is the most northern town on the Indus in Sind. From Bukkur in Sind to the sea, the river is known as the 'Lower Sind,' but it is also known familiarly among the Sindis as the 'Daryah.' Pliny writes of *Indus incolis Sindus appellatus*. Finally the river empties itself by many mouths into the Arabian Sea, after a generally southwesterly course in that Province of 580 miles. It ranges in width from 480 to 1600 yards, the average during the low season being 680 yards. During the floods it is in places more than a mile wide. Its depth varies from 4 to 24 feet. The water, derived from the snows of the Himálayas, is of a dirty brown colour, and slightly charged with saline ingredients, carbonate of soda and nitrate of potash. Its velocity in the freshets averages 8 miles per hour, at ordinary times 4 miles. The discharge per second varies at the two periods from 446,086 cubic feet to 40,857 cubic feet. On an average, the temperature of the water is 10° F. lower than that of the air.

The delta of the Indus covers an area of about 3000 square miles, and extends along the coast-line for 125 miles. It is almost a perfect level, and nearly destitute of timber, the tamarisk and mangrove alone supplying fuel. In these respects the delta of the Indus is similar to the Nile, but dissimilar from the Ganges, delta. The marshy portions contain good pasturage, and rice grows luxuriantly wherever cultivation is possible, but the soil generally is not fertile, being a mixture of sand and clay. In the Sháhbandar District are immense deposits of salt. The climate of the delta is cool and bracing in the winter months, excessively hot in the summer, and during the floods most unhealthy. In 1800, the Indus at the apex of the delta divided into two main streams, known as the Baghiár and Sítá; but in 1837 it had entirely deserted the former channel. The Khedewári passage also, which before 1819 was the highway of water traffic to Sháhbandar, was in that

bank, the Eastern Nára and the Fuleli, each with many distributaries. The total area irrigated by canals from the Indus in 1883-84 was: in the Punjab, 150,418 acres; in Sind, 1,627,900 acres, thus distributed among the several Districts,—Karáchí, 248,371 acres; Haidarábád, 517,403 acres; Shikarpur, 563,897 acres; Upper Sind Frontier, 209,867 acres; Thar and Parkar, 88,362 acres.

As a channel of navigation, the Indus has disappointed the expectations that were at one time formed. Before British arms had conquered Sind and the Punjab, it was hoped that the fabled wealth of Central Asia might be brought by this course down to the sea. But, even so far as local traffic is concerned, experience has proved in this case, as with most other Indian rivers, that the cheapness of water communication cannot compete with the superior speed and certainty of railways. Since the opening of the Indus Valley State Railway in the autumn of 1878, navigation on the Indus, whether by steamer or by native boat, has greatly fallen off. The general character of the Indus trade may be inferred from the following statistics, which refer to 1875-76. The Indus flotilla, under the management of the Sind Railway Company, carried down-stream goods to the value of £519,000, the chief items being Indian cotton goods (£219,600), wool (£89,000), oil-seeds, indigo, and sugar; the up-traffic by steamer was valued at £518,000, almost entirely confined to Manchester piece-goods (£415,000) and metals (£61,000). The traffic down-stream in country boats, as registered at Sukkur, was valued at £449,000, the chief items being wool, oil-seeds, wheat, and raw cotton. The return trade by country boats was valued at only £86,000, of which more than one-half was metals. The total number of boats passing Sukkur was 3117, of which 2616, with cargoes aggregating 1,272,186 *maunds*, or 45,435 tons, were going down-stream. The total receipts of the Conservancy and Registration Department in 1875-76 amounted to £5916, against an expenditure of £6442, showing a deficit of £526. The Indus flotilla was abolished in 1882-83.

The first steamer was placed on the river in 1835. In 1847 there were 10 Government steamers, with head-quarters and a factory at Kotri, the yearly expenditure ranging from £27,500 to £50,000. This flotilla was broken up in 1862. In 1859, a company established another 'Indus flotilla' in connection with the Sind Railway, with which it was formally amalgamated in 1870, the joint head-quarters being removed to Lahore in the Punjab. In 1874, the number of steamers plying was 14, and of barges 43, with an aggregate tonnage of 10,641 tons. The receipts were £83,370, being from goods up-river, £53,955; down-river, £23,678; and from passenger traffic, £5737. As previously stated, the railway flotilla was abolished in 1882-83. These were not the only 'flotilla' experiments on the Indus. In

1856, the Oriental Inland Steam Company obtained a yearly subsidy of £5000 from Government. In 1861, the Company had 3 steamers and 9 barges on the river; but as the river current proved too powerful for the steamers, the Company stopped the traffic, and eventually collapsed.

For the conservancy of the river, Act i. of 1863 (Bombay) provides for the registration of vessels, and the levy of pilotage fees by an officer called the Conservator and Registrar of the Indus, the sum realized being expended on the improvement of navigation.

The boats of the Indus are the *dúndhi* and *zaurak*, both cargo-boats, the *launtal*, or ferry-boats, and the *dúndo*, or fishing-boats. The cargo-boats are sometimes of 60 tons burden, and when laden draw 4 feet of water. The state barges or *jhamptis* of the Mírs were built of teak, four-masted, and sometimes required crews of 30 men.

Inhauna.—*Parganá* in Digbijaiganj *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Haidargarh and Subeha *parganás* of Bara Banki District, on the east by Jagdispur *parganá* of Sultánpur, on the south by Simrauta and Mohanganj *parganás* of Rái Bareli. Originally held by the Bhars, an officer of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd's army defeated them, and occupied their fort, but appears to have made little progress. Ultimately, a Bais named Binár Sah came from the west, drove out the Dhobís and Bhars, and acquired the whole country. Area, 100 square miles, of which 44 are under cultivation, and 26 fit for cultivation but not under tillage. Government land revenue, £6639, at the rate of 2s. 1¾d. an acre. Of the 77 villages comprising the *parganá*, 37 are held by Hindu Bais, and 24 by Bharsiáns, a family of Bais who have been converted to Islám. Twelve villages are held under *zamíndárí* tenure, 21 are *tálukdárí*, and 44 *pattidárí*. Population (1881), Hindus, 43,166; Muhammadans, 8650; 'others,' 2; total, 51,818, namely, 24,693 males and 27,693 females: average density of population, 518 per square mile.

Inhauna.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated about midway on the unmetalled road between Lucknow and Sultánpur, 30 miles from Rái Bareli town, and head-quarters of Inhauna *parganá*. Lat. 26° 32′ N., long. 81° 32′ E. Formerly the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* and police circle, removed on the re-arrangement of Oudh Districts in 1869, since which time its traffic has considerably diminished. Population (1881) 3027, namely, Hindus, 1641, and Muhammadans, 1386. The town contains a *bázár* (Ratanganj), and a vernacular school, with 101 pupils on its roll in 1883.

Injarám (*Injeram*).—Town in Korangi (Coringa) *zamíndárí*, Godávarí District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 43′ N., long. 82° 15′ E.; 5 miles south of Korangi. Houses, 380, with (1881) 1660 inhabitants. Now only known as having been one of the earliest of the British settle-

ments on this coast. The factory was founded in 1708, and was celebrated for a manufacture of fine long cloth that afterwards declined. In May 1757, the factory was captured by Bussy. But Injarám continued a mercantile station of the Company till 1829. An irrigation canal takes its name from the town. Injarám and its neighbourhood suffered greatly from a cyclone in 1839.

Insein.—Town in Rangoon District, British Burma; distant 9 miles from Rangoon. Station on the Irawadi State Railway.

In-yeh (*Eng-rai*).—Town in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Daga river, in lat. 17° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 95° 18′ 30″ E. Formerly the head-quarters of the extra-Assistant Commissioner. Population (1881) 940, engaged in rice cultivation and fishing. The town contains 92 houses, and has a police station. Excise revenue (1881), other than that accruing from the tax on palm-toddy, £80.

In-yeh-gyí (*Eng-rai-gyi*).—Lake in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; about 5 miles in circumference, with a fairly uniform breadth of 280 to 300 yards, and a depth of from 20 to 45 feet in the centre. It is connected with the Daga branch of the Bassein by a small outlet, which serves to replenish the lake from the Irawadi and to carry off the surplus water. This lake is by some supposed to have been a former portion of the bed of the Daga, by others it is thought to have been caused by a slip of the lower-lying beds, totally independent of fluvial action. It is very valuable as a preserve for fish, and proved an important source of revenue to the Burmese Government, who exacted an annual tax of £780 from the *Penin* or hereditary chief of the lake, who had sole authority over the villagers employed in the fishery. Each villager had the right of investing his capital in the general working of the fishery, and received a share in the out-turn at the end of the season proportionate to the sum subscribed. The process of dragging the lake is performed by floating capstans worked by hawsers of jungle rope attached to a frame, and occupies three months' working, at the rate of about 45 fathoms each day. The fishing begins with the full moon in June, when the temperature of the water has been reduced by the first showers of the monsoon. The number of fish caught is never below 70,000 to 80,000 of all kinds; they belong for the most part to the genera of Cerca, Cyprinus, Gobio, Labeo, Cimelodus, Cirrhinus, Cyprinodon, and Silurus. The largest specimens weigh about 56 lbs. each. Crocodiles of all sizes are found in the drag-net. Some 8000 to 10,000 persons are engaged in the taking and disposal of the fish, of which about 40 tons are annually sold on the spot.

Irák (or *Loyach*).—River in Sind, Bombay Presidency; rises in lat. 25° 20′ N., and long. 67° 45′ E., at the foot of the Hathúl Hills, between

Karáchí (Kurrachee) and Sehwán, and, after a south-easterly course of 40 miles, falls into Lake Kanjar in lat. 24° 53′ N., and long. 68° 6′ E.

Irawadi.—Principal river of Burma. The Irawadi rises in independent territory, and traverses the Pegu and Irawadi Divisions of British Burma from north to south. The source of the Irawadi has not yet (1884) been discovered. Several distinct theories exist upon the subject. D'Anville, in the 18th century, thought the Irawadi was identical with the Tsanpu (Sanpo), which flows through Tibet from west to east. Dalrymple's map accompanying Syme's *Embassy to Awah* (Ava) shows the Tsanpu as one of the sources of the Irawadi, but their point of union is not defined. In 1825, Klaproth maintained that the Irawadi was a continuation of the Pinlaing-kiang, which, after flowing through Western Yunan from the west, not the north, entered the valley of the Irawadi at Bhamo (Ba-maw). Other geographers asserted that the true source of the river was to be sought in China. Colonel Henry Yule, the chief of recent authorities, holds that the cradle of the Irawadi is in the Langtam range of the Himálayas. Mr. R. Gordon, late Executive Engineer at Henzada on the Irawadi, adopts the theory that the Irawadi is a continuation of the Sanpo. It is now, however, generally accepted that the BRAHMAPUTRA, not the Irawadi, is the continuation of the Tsanpu. The connection of the Brahmaputra with the Tsanpu was discovered by Lieutenants Wilcox and Burton, who crossed from Assam into Tibet in 1827; and this indicates, as conclusively as can be shown until the entire course of the river is traced, that the Irawadi rises in the southern slopes of the Patkoi Mountains. One branch of it apparently rises in lat. 27° 43′ N., long. 97° 25′ E., and another in the same hills a few days' journey farther east. These two branches—known as the Myit-gyi, or 'Large River,' and Myit-nge, or 'Small River'—unite to form the Irawadi in lat. 26° N. The most upward point of the river yet reached by a European (Mr. Strettel) is the defile of Munt-gaung within the same parallel of latitude.

The general course of the Irawadi is from north to south. Starting from its assigned head-quarters in lat. 26° N., it flows through independent Burmese territory until a point on the frontier 11 miles north of the town of Thayet-myo is reached. During its course through independent territory it receives, as chief tributaries from the westward, the Mogaung, the Kyaung, the Mú, and lesser streams. The Mogaung joins the main river (600 yards wide at the junction) in lat. 24° 50′ N., 100 miles above Bhamo; the Kyaung joins 100 miles below Bhamo; and the Mú about 50 miles below Mandalay. From the eastward, in independent territory north of Bhamo, the Irawadi receives the waters of the Shimai, the Moulay, and the Taping; south of Bhamo, it is increased by the waters of the Shwe-li, Kyin-dwin, Myit-nge, and Pan-baung.

Shortly after the confluence of the Mogaung, the main stream of the Irawadi enters the first or upper defile. Here the breadth of the river varies between 50 and 250 yards; the current is very rapid, and the backwaters occasion violent eddies and whirlpools. When the river is at its lowest, no bottom is found even at 40 fathoms. At Bhamo, the Irawadi receives the Ta-ping from the east; and then, turning south, after a long bend to the westward enters a second defile 5 miles long, which is exceedingly picturesque, the stream winding in perfect stillness under high bare rocks rising sheer out of the water.

Farther down, not far from Mandalay, is the third or lowest defile. The river banks are covered at this point with dense vegetation, and slope down to the water's edge; at places rise almost perpendicular, but wooded, heights. Except when the river is at its highest, the navigation of the two lower defiles is easy and safe for all but very long steamers. The valley of Ava begins below the third defile, and lies entirely on the east side of the Irawadi; the range of the Minwún Hills, terminating at Sagain opposite Ava, hems the river closely in on the west. After receiving the waters of the Myit-nge, as far as 17° N. lat., the course of the Irawadi is exceedingly tortuous. The British frontier is crossed in lat. 19° 29′ 3″ N., long. 95° 15′ E., the breadth of the river being here three-quarters of a mile. Opposite Thayet-myo, about 11 miles lower down, it is nearly 3 miles broad from bank to bank. Forty-eight miles farther south it passes Prome. At Akauk-Taung, where a spur of the Arakan Hills ends abruptly in a precipice 300 feet high, the river enters its delta, the hills giving place to low alluvial plains, now protected on the west by extensive embankments. From 17° N. lat., a little above Henzada, 90 miles inland, the Irawadi sends off its first branch to the westward. This branch, sweeping past Bassein, takes its designation as the Bassein river from the name of the port, and, bifurcating, flows into the sea by two chief mouths. A little below Henzada the main stream sends off a small arm eastward to join the Hlaing river above and near Rangoon, and, dividing and sub-dividing, enters the sea by nine principal mouths. These mouths are named the Bassein, the Thekngay-thaung or eastern entrance of the Bassein, the Rangoon, the To or China Bakir, the Pya-pún, the Kyún-tún or Dala, the Irawadi, the Pya-ma-law, and the Rwe. The Bassein and Rangoon mouths are the only mouths used by sea-going ships.

The valley of the Irawadi, for the most part devoted to rice cultivation, is about 80 miles broad at the frontier line. It gradually widens towards the south; and at 60 or 70 miles below the frontier becomes a broad, level, and highly-cultivated plain. At its lower end the valley of the Irawadi meets the valley of the Sittaung, and stretches, as a great flat country, from Cape Negrais on the west to Martaban

on the east. The watershed between the upper courses of the Irawadi and the Sittaung is the Pegu Yoma range (yoma = backbone), which runs from north to south till it terminates in low hills at Rangoon. The main valley of the Irawadi is split up into several smaller valleys, separated by the spurs of the Pegu Yoma Hills; such as the valley of the Hlaing river, the valley of the Pegu river, and the valley of the Pu-zu-daung river. The plains of the Irawadi, extending from Prome, in lat. 18° 15′, to the sea, in lat. 15° 50′, are subject to annual inundations, which it has been the endeavour of Government to lessen or prevent. In 1879, Mr. R. Gordon, Executive Engineer at Henzada, published the results of an investigation as to what would be the consequences of embanking the Irawadi main channel on two sides from the head of the delta seawards for a distance of 150 miles. Part of a continuous embankment of one side of the Irawadi, throughout Lower Burma, had been carried on in a desultory manner from 1863 to 1867; but eventually Mr. Gordon was directed to obtain exact data as to levels of surface and volume of water to be dealt with before the project should be resumed. As the result of his investigations, Mr. Gordon was in favour of the embankment of the Irawadi being carried out, and cited the successful embankment of the Nawin river, which has been practically encased, as an additional reason for his opinion. In accordance, therefore, with this and other testimony, the embankment works are being vigorously prosecuted; and a special Act (xiii. of 1877) gives power to the Embankment Officer to impress all able-bodied persons, when a flood or other emergency occurs, for the construction or repair of the embankments.

The Embankment system is divided into two series, the Western and the Eastern. The former embraces the Kyangin, Myanaung, and Henzada sections; the latter includes only a few projects in the survey stage. The amount expended on the Western series up to 1883 was £305,882; and the expenditure during that year was only £4676. See HENZADA District. In addition, £200,000 was expended in 1882–83 in cutting the Tunte Canal, 8 miles long, a work meant to shorten and facilitate the passage of craft between the Irawadi and Rangoon river.

The Irawadi Delta is constantly encroaching on the sea, owing to the immense quantity of silt brought down by the river, and is cut up into numerous islands by a labyrinth of tidal creeks. Scattered along these in the extreme south are temporary villages, occupied during the dry season by salt boilers and makers of *nga-pi* or fish-paste.

The area of the catchment basin of the Irawadi is 158,009 square miles; the area of the delta is 18,000 square miles; and the total length of the river from its assigned source to the sea is about 900 miles, the last

240 miles flowing in British territory. As far down as Akauk-taung in Henzada District, its bed is rocky; but below this, sandy and muddy. It is full of islands and sandbanks, many of the former, and all the latter, being submerged during the rains; its waters are extremely muddy, and the mud is carried far out to sea. The river commences to rise in March; about June, after a fall, it steadily rises again, and attains its maximum height about September. At Prome, in September, it is from 33 to 40 feet above its dry-season level. Below the latitude of Myan-aung, the Irawadi inundates large tracts of country on its eastern or unprotected bank. Several contradictory calculations have been made of its discharge. The average annual discharge, according to Mr. Gordon's observations, and calculated in metre-tons of 37 cubic feet, is 428 billion tons.

The Irawadi is navigable at all seasons by steamers of light draught as high as Bhamo, and during the dry season, for steamers drawing 6 feet, as far as the British frontier. In the rains, steamers and large boats enter the main stream of the Irawadi from Rangoon by the Pan-hlaing or Bhawlay creeks. During the dry season they have to descend the Rangoon river for some distance, and, passing through the Bassein creek, enter the Irawadi through the To or China Bakir. In the dry season, the northern entrance to the Bassein river is entirely closed by a large sandbank. The tide is felt as far up as Henzada, and at Pu-zun-daung it rises 18½ feet at springs. Disastrous floods have more than once occurred in the Irawadi, the years 1871, 1875, and 1877 being remarkable in this respect. Below Akauk-taung on the west, and Prome on the east, the Irawadi receives no tributaries of importance.

The broad channel of the Irawadi has always been the sole means of communication between the interior and the seaboard. From time immemorial, the precious stones, minerals, etc. of Upper Burma and the Chinese frontier provinces have been brought down by this route. At the present day, the great bulk of the trade is in the hands of the 'Irrawaddy Flotilla Company,' an important English carrying firm; but native boats still maintain a strenuous competition. The flotilla of the Company consists of about 60 vessels, including steamers and flats. They employ about 1770 hands, European and native; and distribute in wages upwards of £50,000 a year. Their head-quarters are at Rangoon, where, for the construction and repair of their large fleet, they have leased from Government the old dockyard, foundry, and engineer establishment. In 1882, the number of steamers passing up the Irawadi was 115, and passing down 110. In previous years these numbers had been larger, but as steamers have decreased in number, the tonnage and number of native craft have proportionately increased. Steamers run twice a week from Rangoon to Bassein,

and from Rangoon to Mandalay, under contract with the Government of India for the conveyance of mails, troops, and stores. The service from Rangoon to Mandalay is continued twice a month to Bhamo, about 1000 miles from the sea. The following are the stopping stations between Rangoon and Mandalay, proceeding up-stream:—Yandún, at the mouth of the Pan-hlaing creek, 50 miles above Rangoon, a large trading village; Donabyu; Henzada, a place of growing importance as a delta station for the observation of physical data connected with the Irawadi; Ye-gin, with large exports of paddy (unhusked rice) to Upper Burma; Myan-aung, the old civil station, now moved to Henzada; Prome, in former days a terminus for the steamers; Thayet-myo, the military frontier station, about 350 miles above Rangoon; Minhla, the custom-house station of Independent Burma; Magwe, a considerable centre of local trade, frequented at certain seasons by the Siamese; Ye-nan-gyaung, the shipping depôt for the earth-oil or petroleum produced in large quantities at a spot 3 miles distant; Sinyugyan, Nyaungu, Kunywah, and Pokoko; Mingyan, the most important river station in Independent Burma after Mandalay, the traders being chiefly Chinese; Letsambyu and Sagaing, both only stopped at going down-stream; Mandalay, about 350 miles above Prome. The principal articles carried up-stream are Manchester piece-goods, rice, salt, hardware, and silk. The articles carried down-stream are raw cotton, cutch (a preparation from Acacia catechu for dyeing), india-rubber, jade, spices, precious stones, timber, earth-oil, and dry crops, such as wheat and peas. The value of the trade both ways is about 2½ millions sterling. The latest figures (for 1881–82) show imports into Independent Burma to the value of £1,044,139, against exports of £1,440,982.

The total number of native boats on the Irawadi is about 9750 going up and down stream: the total number of steamers was 225 in 1882–83. The former mostly carry heavy articles of commerce, especially cutch and earth-oil. Going up-stream, they take advantage of the wind, spreading a single enormous sail on a yard sometimes 120 feet long. The Burmese are good river sailors, but generally hug the bank closely. Going down-stream, they take advantage of the full strength of the current, by throwing overboard branches of trees attached to the prow, which float down faster than the boat itself. The Rangoon and Irawadi State Railway was opened for traffic as far as Prome (161 miles) on 1st May 1877. The total sum expended on this line up to the end of 1881–82 was £1,287,795. A further extension of 42 miles to Allanmyo is under consideration.

Irich.—Ancient town in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Lies in lat. 25° 47′ N., and long. 79° 8′ E., on the right bank of the Betwa, 42 miles north-east of Jhánsi city. Population under 5000. Formerly

a town of great importance, the head-quarters of a Sarkár under the Mughal empire, but now lying in ruins, with a continually decreasing population. Many mosques and tombs still standing among the suburbs attest its early prosperity. The British army, under the Marquis of Hastings, encamped on the spot in 1817, on its advance to Gwalior, when suffering from cholera. Here also, in 1804, the British force under Major Shepherd, sent to oppose the incursions of Amír Khán into Jhánsi and Tehri, awaited his approach from Lálitpur. On his first advance, the Amír found himself overpowered, and retreated to Málthaun; whereupon the British troops, thinking that he had permanently retired, marched on to Banda. Amír Khán shortly afterwards returned, and made Irich his head-quarters in his expeditions against Kúnch and Kálpi. Manufacture of chintz and figured broadcloth. First-class police station, school, and post-office. A small municipal income, for conservancy and police purposes, is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Irodu.—*Táluk* and town, Madras Presidency.—*See* Erode.

Irrikúr.—Village in Chirakkal *táluk*, Malabár District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 59′ N., long. 75° 37′ E. Population (1871) 4330; (1881) 2808, dwelling in 441 houses. A considerable entrepôt of trade, and notable as the scene of Máppillá (Moplah) outrages in 1852. From Irrikúr to the sea, the Valarpattanam river is navigable for boats throughout the year.

Isakapalli (*'Sandy Village'*—Telugu).—Village in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 44′ N., long. 80° 8′ E. Population (1881) 1966. A seaport and customs station; formerly carried on a large trade in salt, but the competition of other salt-works has caused the trade to decay. There are granaries and godowns on the beach for the storage of grain. Good anchorage for large sailing vessels and steamers. Connected with Nellore town, 23 miles distant, by a metalled road.

Isákhel.—*Tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab, consisting of a tract shut in between the Chicháli and Maidáni ranges and the river Indus. Its extreme northern portion, known as the Bhanji Khel country, is a wild and rugged region, a continuation of the Khatak Hills. The Bhanji Khels are an influential, but numerically small, section of the great Khatak tribe, and occupied their present country about 400 years ago. The *tahsíl* derives its name from the Isá Khel tribe, a section of the Niázái Afgháns, which, settling here during the sixteenth century, long maintained its independence of the Mughal empire, and at last succumbed to the Nawáb of Dera Ismáil Khán. Area, 675 square miles. Average area under crops (1877 to 1881), 128 square miles. Area under principal crops—Wheat, 35,782 acres; barley, 11,197 acres; and *bájra*, 29,320 acres. Total area assessed for Government revenue,

432,016 acres; total revenue of the *tahsíl*, £6361. Population (1881) 59,546, namely, 53,982 Muhammadans, 5408 Hindus, 78 Sikhs, 60 Jains, and 18 Christians; persons per square mile, 88; number of towns and villages, 47, of which 18 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. The landholders are mostly of the Niázái tribe; but during their long residence in the valley of the Indus, they have lost their mother tongue, Pushtu, and now use only the Punjabi dialect of their tenants. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court; 2 police stations, with a regular police force of 53 men, and a village watch of 80 men.

Isákhel.—Chief town and head-quarters of Isákhel *tahsíl* in Bannu District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 40′ 50″ N., and long. 71° 19′ E., on the high right bank of the Indus, 9 miles west of the present channel; distant from Edwardesábád 42 miles south-east. Population (1881) 6692, namely, 1788 Hindus, 4895 Muhammadans, and 9 Sikhs. Founded about 1830 by Ahmad Khán, ancestor of the present leading family. Built without plan; *bázár* and lanes crooked, narrow, and extremely dirty. Small local trade. The Kháns of Isákhel are the acknowledged heads of the trans-Indus Niázáis. *Tahsíli*, old fort used as police station, staging bungalow, *sarái*, and dispensary. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1881–82 of £356; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0¾d. per head of the population.

Isánagar.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh; situated about 4 miles west of the Kauriála river. The head-quarters of the Isánagar estate. Population (1881) 2589 Hindus and 609 Muhammadans—total, 3198. Small market.

Isarda.—Town in Jaipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána; situated near the banks of the Banás, about 60 miles south from Jaipur city. It has a citadel, and is surrounded by a wall and moat. Population inconsiderable.

Isauli.—*Parganá* in Musáfirkhána *tahsíl*, Sultánpur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Paschimráth and Khandáusa *parganás*, on the east by *parganá* Sultánpur Baraunsa, on the south by Amethi and Sultánpur *parganás*, and on the west by Jagdíspur *parganá*. Originally in the possession of the Bhars, who were ousted about 550 years ago by a party of Bais Kshattriyás, on whom Sultán Alá-ud-din Khilji bestowed the title of Bhále Sultán, which their descendants still retain. Area, 148 square miles, or 94,743 acres, of which 53,749 are cultivated, 16,613 cultivable, 7600 under groves, and the remainder barren. Government land revenue, £9772, or an average of 2s. 1d. per acre. Population (1881) 73,593 Hindus, 9749 Muhammadans—total, 83,342, namely, 40,374 males and 42,968 females. Number of villages, 184; average density of population, 563 per square mile.

Iskardo (or *Skardo*).—Principal town of the province of Balti, Kashmír State; situated in lat. 35° 12′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., on an elevated plain, 19 miles long and 7 broad; 7700 feet above sea-level, at the bottom of a valley, surrounded by lofty mountains. The fort, occupying a rock of gneiss at the confluence of the Indus (here 150 yards broad) with its great tributary the Shegár, is near the magnificent gorge through which the Indus issues from the western ranges of the Himálayas. The cliff on which the fort is built rises to a sheer height of 800 feet above the river, and presents a perpendicular face on every side, except the west, where it slopes rapidly toward the plain. Vigne compares the site to that of Gibraltar, and believes that it could be rendered equally impregnable. The castle of the late princes of Baltistán crowns a small natural platform, 300 feet above the river, and shows by its construction that defence rather than comfort was its chief object. The collection of straggling huts below the fort and castle scarcely deserves the name of town. Ahmad Sháh, the last native prince, bore an excellent character as a just and moderate ruler. His country finally fell into the hands of Guláb Singh of Kashmír, who annexed it to his dominions.

Islámábád.—Chief town of Chittagong District, Bengal.—*See* CHITTAGONG.

Islámábád.—Town in Kashmír State. Lies in lat. 33° 43′ N., long. 75° 17′ E., on the north bank of the Jehlam (Jhelum), here about 80 yards wide, and crossed by a wooden bridge. Islámábád crowns the summit of a long low ridge, extending from the mountains eastward. Below the ridge a low reservoir contains a spring of clear water, slightly sulphurous, from which volumes of gas exhale. A legend connects the origin of the spring with a creative act of Vishnu. The water swarms with sacred fish. Large manufacture of Kashmír shawls, also of chintzes, cotton, and woollen goods. The original name of Anat Nág, derived from the holy reservoir, gave place to Islámábád in the 15th century. Here the Hindu pilgrims to the famous shrine of Siva at Ambarnáth, 60 miles distant, halt to take in a supply of provisions for their journey. Islámábád is the second town in Kashmír, and is the terminus of the upper navigation of the Jehlam. It is described by recent travellers as a miserable place of about 1500 houses, but supporting as many as fifteen Muhammadan temples. Crocus flowers are grown for saffron, which is largely used as medicine, and for the making of caste marks on the foreheads of orthodox Hindus. In good seasons about 20,000 lbs. of saffron are secured.

Islámábád Bijhauli.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; about 20 miles from Safipur, and 27 from Unao town, in a north-westerly direction. Population (1881) 2163 Hindus and 161 Muhammadans—total, 2324,

residing in 369 houses. Government school. Seat of 3 small annual religious trading fairs.

Islámgarh (or *Nohar*).—Fort in Baháwalpur State, Punjab, close to the borders of Rájputána. Lat. 27° 50′ N., long. 70° 52′ E.; lies on the route from Khánpur to Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere), 65 miles north of the latter town. Consists of an ancient structure of small bricks, about 80 yards square, with lofty ramparts, from 30 to 50 feet in height. The situation is unfavourable for defence, being surrounded on every side by sandhills of considerable elevation. A few buildings occupy the enclosed space, while some straggling houses lie without the wall. The fort formerly belonged to Jaisalmer (Jeysulmere), but was wrested from the Rájputs by the Khán of Baháwalpur.

Islámkot.—Town in the Mitti *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 41′ 30″ N., and long. 70° 13′ E. Population (1872) 862: not over 2000 in 1881. The municipal revenue in 1873–74 was £48, but the municipality was abolished in 1878 on the introduction into Sind of Bombay Act vi. of 1873. An old native fort stands outside the town. Islámkot is connected by good roads with the neighbouring villages.

Islámnagar. — Town in Bisauli *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lies on the road from Bisauli to Sambhal, 12 miles west of the former town. Lat. 28° 19′ 45″ N., long. 78° 46′ E. Population (1881) 5890, namely, Hindus, 3616; Muhammadans, 2245; and 'others,' 29. Area of town site, 60 acres. The town contains a second-class police station, post-office, dispensary, *sarái* or native inn, cattle pound, and school. A market is held every Monday and Friday. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1865. The outskirts of the town are well planted with groves of mango trees.

Islámpur.—Town and municipality in the Wálwa Sub-division of Sátára District, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 8390; (1881) 8949, namely, Hindus, 7801; Muhammadans, 771; Jains, 377. Area of town site, 115 acres. The income of the municipality was £318 in 1882–83; incidence of municipal taxation, 4s. 7d. per head.

Itá.—Small detached group of hills in the centre of Sylhet District, Assam. Area, about 49 square miles; highest point, 300 feet above sea-level. The slopes, which were formerly overgrown with dense jungle and brushwood, are now converted into flourishing tea-gardens.

Itársi.—Town in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces, and station on the Great I[illegible] the junction of that line with [illegible] Population (1881) 2138, namely, Hindus, 1820; Muhammadans, 147; Jains, 8; aboriginal tribes, 163.

There are four shareholders. The revenue is estimated at £150. Tribute of £60 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Iviker (or *Aibiká*).—Town in Travancore State, Madras Presidency; situated on the sea-coast in lat. 8° 57′ N., and long. 76° 37′ E., at the mouth of the river Aibiká, which is navigable only by small craft. Export trade in timber, spices, and lac. Distance from Quilon town, 5 miles.

J.

Jabalpur (*Jubbulpore*).—One of the four Divisions or Commissionerships of the Central Provinces, comprising the Districts of JABALPUR, SAGAR (SAUGOR), DAMOH, SEONI, and MANDLA. Area, 18,688 square miles, with 11 towns and 8501 villages; houses, 504,080. Total population (1881) 2,201,633, namely, 1,128,083 males and 1,073,550 females; average density of population, 117·8; towns and villages per square mile, ·46; persons per village, 259; houses per square mile, 27; persons per house, 4·37. Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 1,655,103, or 75·18 per cent.; Sikhs, 47; Kabírpanthís, 25,014, or 1·13 per cent.; Satnámís, 702; Muhammadans, 87,060, or 3·95 per cent.; Christians, 3769; Buddhists, 11; Jains, 30,295, or 1·38 per cent.; Pársís, 69; non-Hindu aborigines, 399,559, or 18·13 per cent.; and unspecified, 4. Total adult agriculturists, 763,871, or 34·70 per cent. of the total divisional population, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 10 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of 18,688 square miles, 12,833 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 5483 square miles were returned in 1881 as under cultivation; 3956 square miles as cultivable; and 3394 as uncultivable. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £162,739, or an average of 9⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total amount of rent actually paid by cultivators, £417,707, or an average of 2s. 3¾d. per cultivated acre. Justice is afforded by 38 civil and 29 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 49, besides 133 outpost stations. Total revenue of the Division in 1882–83, £194,242.

Jabalpur (*Jubbulpore*).—District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 12′ and 23° 56′ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 81° 35′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Panná and Maihar States; on the east by Rewá State; on the south by the British Districts of Mandlá, Seoní, and Narsinghpur; and on the west by Damoh District. Area, 3918 square miles; population in 1881, 687,233. The administrative head-quarters of the District are at JABALPUR, which is also the principal town.

Physical Aspects.—Jabalpur consists of a long, narrow plain, running north-east and south-west, and shut in on all sides by highlands, forming an offshoot from the great valley of the Narbadá (Nerbudda). This plain is covered in its western and southern portions by a rich alluvial deposit of black cotton-soil, merging towards the north-east in an undulating tract of metamorphic and lateritic formation. The south-eastern parts, lying parallel with the black-soil country, belong to the great trappean area of Central India. Granitic rocks occupy larger areas than elsewhere. Near Jabalpur town the granite forms a range of low hills running from the Narbadá towards the north-east, and attaining its highest point near the ancient town of Garhá, where it is crowned by a ruined building called the Madan Mahál. Here the hilly area of the granite extends over about 2 miles, consisting chiefly, says Mr. J. G. Medlicott, of 'a porphyritic syenite, whose matrix is a mixture of glassy quartz, with pale pink or pale green felspar, along with a small proportion of hornblende, and which contains embedded crystals of dull lead-grey felspar (adularia), about one-third of an inch long, and in great number, frequently forming a large proportion of the mass.' At Jabalpur itself the soil is sandy, and water plentiful near the surface; so that even in the sultry blaze of an Indian summer there still appear a freshness and verdure such as no station situated on basaltic soil can enjoy.

The highlands in the distance relieve the monotony of the fertile plain. On the north and west the Bhánrer Hills, which belong to the Vindhyan sandstone series, and the low rocky Káimur chain, on the east the Bhitrígarh heights, and on the south spurs and ridges projecting from the Gondwáná range, ring in the District with a border of picturesque scenery, in which hill and valley, forest and stream, succeed each other in rapid variety. The Bhánrer and Káimur chains form a watershed, the northern side of which is drained by the Ganges. The other and more important watershed of the District starts from the Bhitrígarh range, and crosses the Great Northern Road between Sleemanábád and Sihora. Rain falling to the north and east finds its way into tributaries either of the Ganges or the Jumna, while rivulets rising on the south and west swell the rapid stream of the Narbadá (Nerbudda). Thus, the traveller from Jabalpur to Mírzápur passes over the great watershed between the Gulf of Cambay and the Bay of Bengal. The principal rivers are the Mahánadí (not to be confounded with the more important river of that name), which, rising in Mandlá District, flows in a northerly direction till near Bijerághogarh it bends towards the east and falls into the Son (Soane); the Gurayyá, between Jabalpur and Damoh; the Patná, which separates the District from Panná; and the Hiran, which flows into the Narbadá at Sánkal. But besides these streams, the Narbadá flows through

the District for 70 miles from east to west, passing about 9 miles below Jabalpur town through the famous Marble Rocks. There the river, which above this point had attained a breadth of 100 yards, flings itself tumultuously from a rocky ledge with a fall of 30 feet, called Dhuán-dhár or the Misty Shoot, and then flows on in a deep and narrow channel nearly 2 miles long, through a mass of beautifully white limestone. On each side, a dazzling row of marble bluffs, rising sheer up to a height of 100 feet, confines the swirling waters.

History.—The early history of Jabalpur is unknown; but inscriptions record the existence during the 11th and 12th centuries of a local line of princes of that Haihai race which is so closely connected with the history of Gondwáná. In the 16th century, Sangráni Sá, the Gond Rájá of Garhá Mandlá, extended his power over fifty-two Districts, including the present Jabalpur. During the minority of his grandson, Prem Náráyan, the Gond Queen Durgávatí administered the government. The rule of a woman appeared a favourable time for aggression; and Asaf Khán, the Viceroy of Kara Mánikpur on the Ganges, sought and obtained permission to conquer the Garhá principality. The decisive battle was fought under the castle of Singaurgarh, and Asaf Khán proved victorious. Stung by her defeat, the high-spirited Durgávatí put an end to her life. At first Asaf Khán held Garhá as an independent ruler, but eventually he resigned his pretensions, and submitted himself to the Emperor Akbar. In the list of Akbar's dominions given in the *Aín-i-Akbari*, Garhá appears as a division of the Government of Málwá. The Delhi power, however, enjoyed little more than a nominal supremacy; and the princes of Garhá Mandlá maintained a practical independence until their subjugation by the Governors of Ságar (Saugor) in 1781. Though Bakht Buland never brought Jabalpur under his sway, this District, like the rest of Gondwáná, felt the effects of his liberal and enlightened policy; and it was in his time that the industrious Lodhís and Káyasths settled here.

In 1798, the Peshwá granted Mandlá and the Narbadá valley to the Bhonsla Princes of Nágpur, who continued to hold the District until the British occupied it after an engagement on the 19th December 1817. By the provisional Government then formed, Raghunáth Ráo, Rájá of Inglíá, was appointed acting *subáhdár*; and a petition which he presented throws a curious light upon the Maráthá system of rule. The *subáhdár* inquired whether all widows were still to be sold, and the purchase money paid into the treasury? whether all persons receiving any moneys through an order, or by the interposition, of any person in office, should still pay one-fourth of such moneys to the State? and whether any person selling his house or his daughter should still pay to the State one-fourth of the purchase money? These rules the British had found

in full force; and one of the earliest acts of the provisional Government was to order the release of a young woman named Pursiá, who had been sold by auction for £1, 14s. At first, the Ságar and Narbadá territories were governed by a Commissioner in subordination to the Resident at Nágpur. Subsequently, these Districts were separated from the Nágpur Agency; and in 1843 Lord Ellenborough recast the whole system of administration. The chief feature of his reforms was the separation of the judicature from the departments of revenue and police. The system which he instituted lasted until November 1861, when Jabalpur was formed into a District of the Central Provinces, under the control of a Chief Commissioner resident at Nágpur.

Population.—In 1872, the population of the District, with an area the same as at present, was returned at 528,859. In 1881, the total population amounted to 687,233, showing an increase of 158,374, or 29·9 per cent. in the nine years. This large increase, apart from the normal growth of the population in prosperous years, is stated to be partially due to the gradual return of famine-stricken peasantry who fled the District at the time of the scarcity of 1869; to a large immigration from neighbouring Native States, induced by the spread of cultivation and the opening of public works; and also (to the extent of about 3 per cent.) to defective enumeration in 1872. The Census of 1881 disclosed a population of 687,233 persons, on an area of 3918 square miles, residing in 2310 villages or towns, and 174,512 houses; persons per square mile, 175·4; villages per square mile, 0·59; houses per square mile, 44·54; persons per village, 298; persons per house, 3·9. Classified according to sex—males, 349,251; females, 337,982. According to age—the male children under 12 numbered 117,279; the female children, 112,604.

The ethnical division of the population is as follows:—Europeans, 1125; Eurasians, 267; Indo-Portuguese, 30; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 67,804; Hindus and people of Hindu origin, including aboriginal tribes which have embraced Hinduism, and Christians who are Hindus by descent, 565,361; Muhammadans, 34,790; Buddhists and Jains, 5515; Pársís, 51; and 'others' and unspecified, 337. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes, Hindu and non-Hindu, are the Gonds, 98,384, and Kols, 46,383; the remainder consist of Bharias, Báigas, etc. Among the higher classes of Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 60,420; Rájputs, 19,910; and Káyasths, 5278. The Baniyás or trading caste numbered 11,923. The other numerically important castes are the Lodhís, 45,760; Kurmís, 34,513; Ahírs or Gaulís, 32,911; Chamárs, 32,905; Dhimárs, 29,278; Kachhís, 25,945; Telís, 17,817; Mehras, 14,037; Koerís, 11,558; Lohárs, 10,484; Náis, 10,832; Kumbhárs, 9786; and Gadariyás, 6559. The Muhammadan population are divided according to sect

into—Sunnís, 33,452; Shiás, 418; and 'others,' 920. The Christians include—Church of England, 855; Roman Catholics, 1094; Presbyterians, 83; Protestants not otherwise distinguished, 357; etc. Native Christians numbered 721. The language commonly spoken is the Hindí dialect known as Baghelí, a peculiarity of which is the elision of nearly all short vowels; but Urdú is generally understood, and is the language of the courts.

Division into Town and Country.—The only towns in Jabalpur District in 1881 were JABALPUR, with a population of 75,705; MURWARA, 8612; and SIHORA, 5736. These towns, which are also the only municipalities, contain an aggregate urban population of 90,053, leaving 597,180, or 87 per cent., as representing the rural population. Of the 2310 towns and villages in 1881, 1307 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 737 between two and five hundred; 218 between five hundred and a thousand; 32 between one and two thousand; 10 between two and three thousand; 3 between three and five thousand; 2 between five and ten thousand; and 1 upwards of fifty thousand.

As regards occupation, the male population is classified as follows in the Census Report of 1881:—Class (1) Professional, including Government officials and professions, 9022; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 4850; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7244; (4) agricultural and pastoral, 140,342; (5) industrial, including all manufacturers and artisans, 48,144; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers, male children, and unspecified, 139,649.

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 3918 square miles, only 1563 were cultivated in 1882; and of the portion lying waste, 1115 square miles were returned as cultivable, and 1240 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total area assessed for Government revenue, 3456 square miles. Of the cultivated land, 3824 acres are irrigated—entirely by private enterprise. Cereals constitute the principal crop, 352,883 acres being devoted in 1881–82 to wheat, and 430,352 to inferior food-grains. The production of rice has decreased, occupying 124,409 acres in 1881–82, as against 155,894 acres in 1876. The area under cotton has also fallen off from 28,027 acres in 1872, to 22,919 in 1882. During the same period, the area of land devoted to the growth of oil-seeds has more than doubled, being returned at 42,215 acres in 1872, 91,362 acres in 1876, and 101,753 acres in 1881–82. The District is rich in garden produce, raising, in addition to the ordinary Indian fruits, peaches and pine-apples and strawberries, as well as potatoes of an excellent quality. Both the plain country and the highlands are well wooded; and the forest produce is of considerable value, consisting of lac and gum, and silk from the cocoons of the *tasar* moth. The timber has suffered greatly from fires caused either by

accident or by the annual burnings of the hill tribes; since, where these conflagrations do not destroy, they effectually scar the bark of the young teak tree. The Forest Department now use every means to prevent this destruction; and tracts of forest land in the Sangrámpur valley, and on the west bank of the Mahánadí in Bijerághogarh, have been marked off as State reserves.

The Census of 1881 showed a total of 6946 proprietors. The tenant cultivators numbered 157,121, of whom 24,226 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 36,331 were tenants-at-will. The remaining tenants consist mostly of assistants in home cultivation, cultivators on sharing tenures, etc. Agricultural labourers numbered 76,991. The total adult agriculturists of all classes amounted to 241,847, or 35·19 per cent. of the District population, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 7 acres for each adult agriculturist. Amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses paid on land, £61,167, or an average of 1s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £169,171, or an average of 3s. 1⅜d. per cultivated acre. The rent rates per acre in 1882 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 4s. 6d.; for inferior grains, 1s. 3d.; for rice, 3s. 6d.; for cotton, 3s.; for oil-seeds, 1s. 6d.; the average produce per acre being—wheat, 542 lbs.; inferior grain, 299 lbs.; rice, 216 lbs.; cotton, 67 lbs.; and oil-seeds, 242 lbs. The ordinary prices of produce in the same year were as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 3d. per cwt.; rice, 7s. per cwt.; cotton, 42s. per cwt.; and linseed, 7s. per cwt. The daily wages for skilled labour averaged 9d.; for unskilled labour, 4d.

Natural Calamities.—The famine of 1869, and the disease which accompanied and followed it, visited this densely populated District with greater severity than any other part of the Central Provinces. On comparing the Census of 1872 with that for 1866, the population of Jabalpur is found to have decreased by 70,358; and this diminution must to a great degree be accounted for by the calamities of 1869. Large numbers of persons fled the District in search of more favoured localities, but the survivors mostly returned on the cessation of the distress, and the Census of 1881 showed an increased population of 158,374 over that of 1872. It may be hoped that the improved means of communication in the District will hereafter avert the extremity of famine by importation from other tracts.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The trade of the District centres at JABALPUR town, which is one of the most important railway centres in India. One of the chief manufactures is iron. The most productive mines are at Jauli, Agariá, Saroli, and Partábpur. The total number of these mines worked in 1882 was 48. Coal is found at Rámghát, Bheraghát, and near Singápur on the Mahánadí; but the most

promising seam occurs near Lametághát. This coal was worked for a short time in 1868 by a railway contractor, and about 1000 tons extracted. The contractor, however, died, and the seam has been abandoned. Further examinations are being made by the Geological Survey Department. The limestone of the hills at Bheraghát has a high reputation; and Murwárá supplies a limestone said to be suited for lithographic purposes, which fetches a high price in the Calcutta market. The other manufactures of the District consist of brass utensils, cotton cloth, and leather articles. Tents and carpets also are made at Jabalpur, both in the School of Industry and by private persons. There were, in 1882, 303 miles of roads in the District, entirely of the second class. The best are those to Mírzápur on the north, and to Seoní on the south, the former of which is one long avenue of trees. Fair-weather roads lead to Ságar and to Narsinghpur; and the route to Mandlá has lately been improved. The District enjoys no means of communication by water; but the railroad amply compensates for this deficiency.

Jabalpur town is perhaps the most important railway station in India, being the junction of the East Indian and Great Indian Peninsula systems. The Jabalpur branch of the East Indian line runs north-east to Allahábád. Its total length is 228 miles. This branch was opened for traffic on 1st June 1867. The main line of the Great Indian Peninsula runs south-west to Bombay, following for some distance the valley of the Narbadá. This line was not opened throughout until 1872. It now forms the regular channel of communication between Bombay and Calcutta, and between Bombay and the North-West. The railway crosses the rocky bed of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) near Jhánsighát by a viaduct 371 yards long.

Administration.—In 1861, Jabalpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1876-77, £76,013, of which the land yielded £57,188. The revenue of the District in 1882 had increased to £89,246, the land yielding £57,540. Number of civil and revenue judges (1882), 13; magistrates, 19; maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 40 miles; average distance, 18 miles. Number of police, 722, being 1 policeman to every 5·4 square miles and to every 952 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1882 was 1055, of whom 70 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 157, attended by 8977 pupils. Besides youths at school, the Census Report of 1881 returned 18,117 males and 666 females as able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Jabalpur High School has proved most successful; and at the training school for mistresses an attempt has

been made to solve the difficult problem of providing a teaching staff for girls, by inducing the wives of normal school students to qualify. The three municipalities contain an aggregate population of 90,053 persons; the total municipal income in 1881 was £11,912, of which £9879 was derived from taxation; expenditure, £15,923; average rate of municipal taxation, 2s. 2¼d. per head of the population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is healthy, and the temperature extremely moderate. Near Kundam the thermometer has been recorded as low as 26°. In 1882, the readings in the shade at the civil station were as follows:—May, highest 111·9 F., lowest 68·9; July, highest 92·4, lowest 70·1; December, highest 82·8, lowest 41·2. As a rule, the hot weather extends only over two months, and, except immediately before the rains, is not oppressive. The rains last from early in June until the latter part of September. The prevailing winds are westerly. The average annual rainfall is returned at 52·13 inches, the rainfall in 1882 being as much as 67·75 inches, or 15·62 inches above the average. February and March rarely pass without the *rabi* crops suffering from hailstorms. The prevailing diseases of the District are fevers and dysentery, the former being severest from the beginning of the rains to the end of November. Cholera and small-pox are occasional visitants, and influenza at times assumes the character of an epidemic. During the five years ending 1882, the recorded death-rate per thousand of the population averaged 37·87; in 1882, it was as high as 40·84. During the same year, 7 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 47,192 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding Jabalpur, see the *Settlement Report of the District*, by Major W. Nembhard and A. M. Russell, Esq. (1863); the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Charles Grant, Esq., C.S.I. (Nagpur, 1870); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the *Administration and Departmental Reports* of those Provinces from 1880 to 1883.]

Jabalpur (*Jubbulpore*).—Southern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Jabalpur District, Central Provinces; situated between 22° 51′ and 24° 5′ N. lat., and between 79° 22′ and 80° 58′ E. long. Area, 1545 square miles; towns and villages, 1072; houses, 81,865. Total population (1872) 267,785; (1881) 336,168, namely, males 172,936, and females 163,232; persons per square mile, 217·58. Of the 1072 towns and villages, 974 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Total adult agriculturists, 105,229, or 31·3 per cent. of the sub-divisional population, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 6 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 194 square miles are held revenue free, 1351 square miles being assessed for Government revenue. Of the assessed area, 615 square miles are under cultivation, 356 square miles are cultivable, and 380 square miles are

uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £31,985, or an average of 1s. 7½d. per cultivated acre; total rental actually paid by cultivators, £89,268, or an average of 4s. 4⅜d. per cultivated acre. The Sub-division contained in 1883, 6 civil courts (including the Court of the Commissioner of the Division, Small Cause Court, and Registrar's Court), 12 magisterial courts, and 6 police stations, with 14 outposts; strength of regular police, 187 men; number of village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 966.

Jabalpur (*Jubbulpore*).—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Jabalpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 11′ N., long. 79° 59′ E. Situated in a rocky basin, at an elevation above sea-level of about 1458 feet; 165 miles north-east from Nágpur, and 108 miles south-east from Ságar (Saugor). Population (1877) 55,188; (1881) 75,705, namely, Hindus, 55,146; Muhammadans, 16,916; Kabírpanthís, 62; Sikhs, 6; Christians, 2391; Buddhists, 9; Jains, 1041; Pársís, 41; aboriginal tribes, 93. Municipal income in 1882–83, £14,738, of which £12,386 is derived from taxation, mainly octroi duties; average incidence, 3s. 10⅝d. per head of the population.

The numerous gorges in the surrounding rocks have been taken advantage of to surround the town with a series of lakes, which, shaded by fine trees, and bordered by fantastic crags and massy boulders, add much beauty to the suburbs. The town itself is modern, and laid out in wide and regular streets. The principal approach lies near a public garden, and in the centre of the town is a fine tank surrounded by groups of temples. A streamlet called the Umtí separates the civil station and cantonment from the town. Jabalpur contains a School of Industry, where Thug and Dacoit approvers and their families are employed in one of the largest manufactories of tents and carpets in India. The garrison consists of the head-quarters and six companies of a European infantry regiment, a regiment of Native infantry, and a squadron of Native cavalry.

The opening of the railway system has immensely developed the trade of Jabalpur, which has now become the most important centre of commerce in the Central Provinces after Kampti. In 1875–76, the total imports into Jabalpur were valued at £567,000. In 1881–82, the total imports into the District were valued at £1,051,472, the chief items being—European piece-goods, £118,170; wheat, £167,012; inferior food-grains, £21,256; metals, £129,866; sugar, £55,495; salt, £36,769; rice, £4036; native piece-goods, £17,370; oil-seeds, £53,637; spices, £41,211; *ghí* and oil, £17,689; lac, £16,456; raw cotton, £12,491. The export trade has increased in an even greater ratio; the total exports, which were estimated at a value of £160,000 in value in 1876–77, having risen to £557,840 in 1881–82, the chief items being—wheat, £126,792; piece-goods, £51,800;

metals, £223,036; oil-seeds, £32,741; lac, £16,266; and sugar, £14,720. The great bulk of the traffic is carried on by means of the East Indian and Great Indian Peninsula Railways. There is also a large road traffic with the neighbouring Districts of Seoní, Damoh, and Mandlá, which draw most of their supplies from Jabalpur city.

Jabria Bhíl.—Guaranteed Girásia *Thakurat*, or chiefship, under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. On the settlement of Málwá, Rájan Khán, brother of the notorious Pindárí marauder, Chítú, was allowed a pension, afterwards commuted for an assignment of lands in Sujáwalpur for life. The grant consisted of a *jágír* of three villages—Pipliánagar, Kajúri, and Jabria Bhíl—and an *istimrárí* farm (assessed in perpetuity) of Dungria and Jabrí at an annual rent of £50. At the death of Rájan Khán, in consideration of his good conduct during the latter part of his life, the grant was perpetuated, and divided among his five sons, of whom Rájá Bakhsh received Jabria Bhíl and Jabrí. Rájá Bakhsh died in 1874, and was succeeded by his son, Jamal Bakhsh, the present holder. Jamal Bakhsh pays £25 a year tribute to Sindhia, Rájá of Gwalior.

Jabuah.—State in Málwá, Central India.—*See* Jhabua.

Jacobábád.—*Táluk* in the Frontier District of Upper Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 27° 55′ 30″ to 28° 25′ 45″ N., and long. 67° 59′ to 68° 36′ E. Area, 455 square miles, containing 4 *tapás* and 51 villages. Population (1872) 35,545; (1881) 37,324, namely, 21,891 males and 15,433 females, dwelling in 6672 houses. Hindus numbered 4186; Muhammadans, 30,566; Sikhs, 1908; Jews, 3; Christians, 222; Pársís, 9; aboriginal tribes, 430. Revenue (1881–82), £21,910, of which £21,061 was derived from imperial and £849 from local funds. Area assessed to land revenue, 53,593 acres in 1882–83; area under actual cultivation, 52,857 acres. The *táluk* has 5 criminal courts; 2 police stations (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 68 men.

Jacobábád.—Municipality and chief town of the Frontier District of Upper Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 28° 17′ N., and long. 68° 29′ E. Population (1872) 10,954; (1881), including cantonments, 11,352, of whom 7365 were in the town. Of the total, Muhammadans numbered 6386; Hindus, 3317; Christians, 210; Jains, 3; Pársís, 6; 'others,' 1430. The municipal revenue in 1881–82 was £2959; rate of taxation, 4s. 3d. per head. Jacobábád was planned and laid out, in 1847, by General John Jacob, for many years Commandant of the Sind Horse, on the site of the village of Khángarh. The town is oblong in shape, two miles long, one mile broad, and is watered by the Rájwah and Búdwáh irrigation canals. Jacobábád is now the head-quarters of a regiment of Sind Horse and a regiment of Baluch infantry, as well as of the civil administration. It contains a small European population, and has the usual public

offices and institutions of a District head-quarters. In addition to the cantonments, civil and judicial courts, dispensary, jail, post and telegraph offices, etc., it has also a Residency, the memorial tomb of General Jacob, who died here in 1858, and lines for the accommodation of trade caravans (*káfilas*) from Central Asia. Civil justice is administered by the Deputy Commissioner as District Judge, and by the Deputy Collector as Subordinate Judge. As regards criminal jurisdiction, the District is under the Sessions Court of Shikárpur. The Sind-Pishín Railway (from Ruk on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line to Sibi and Quetta) passes through the town, and carries a considerable trade in grain, *ghí*, and leather. From Ruk, Jacobábád is distant by rail 37 miles. Excellent roads connect Jacobábád with Shikárpur (24 miles distant), Thul, Kashmor, and other towns. English, Anglo-vernacular, and vernacular schools are supported. The number of patients treated in the Jacobábád dispensary in 1883 was—in-door, 284; out-door, 4059. There were within municipal limits, 4 schools in 1881–82, with 182 scholars.

Jáfarábád.—Native State under the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 50′ to 20° 59′ N., and long. 71° 18′ to 71° 29′ E.; 170 miles south of Ahmadábád, 150 south-west of Baroda, and 165 north-west of Bombay. Estimated area, 42 square miles; 12 villages. Population (1872) 10,251; (1881) 9405. Estimated gross revenue, £3200 in the former, and £4500 in the latter year. Stone is quarried for building purposes. The crops are cotton and wheat. Coarse cotton cloth is manufactured. The State of Jáfarábád is subject to the Abyssinian chief of Janjírá, a territory situated on the coast of the Konkán, 192 miles south-east of Jáfarábád and 44 miles south of Bombay. In Káthiáwár, the Nawáb of Janjírá ranks as a second-class chief. He maintains a military force of 123 men. The State has 5 schools, with 286 pupils.

Jáfarábád.—Chief town of the State of Jáfarábád, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 52′ N., and long. 71° 25′ E. The name is a contraction of Muzafarábád. Population (1872) 4903; (1881) 4746. Jáfarábád has great natural advantages for coasting trade, being situated about a mile from the sea, on the estuary of a little river called the Ranái, which is the most accessible river on the coast of Káthiáwár, with no bar and an easy entrance. The commerce of the port is only second in importance to that of Diu. Imports in 1880, £34,205; exports, £31,319.

Jafarganj.—Village in Tipperah District, Bengal; situated on the Gúmti, and the seat of a considerable river traffic. It is connected with Comilla, the District head-quarters, 12 miles distant, by a bridged road.

Jáflang.—Market village at the south foot of the Khási Hills, Assam; frequented by Khási and Synteng traders.

Jagádhri.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Ambálá (Umballa) District, Punjab. Area, 387 square miles. Population (1881) 169,640, namely, males 92,387, and females 77,253. Hindus numbered 116,378; Sikhs, 4383; Muhammadans, 48,558; and 'others,' 321. Of a total assessed area of 245,050 acres in the quinquennial return of agricultural statistics for 1878–79, 151,100 were under cultivation, of which 13,716 acres were irrigated by Government, and 8669 by private individuals. Of the uncultivated area, 55,175 acres were grazing lands; 18,009 acres were cultivable but not under tillage; and 20,766 acres uncultivable waste. The average area under the principal crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82 is thus returned—Wheat, 37,904 acres; barley, 19,088 acres; Indian corn, 19,216 acres; rice, 12,421 acres; *joár*, 12,169 acres; gram, 10,454 acres; *moth*, 3535 acres; *bájra*, 2725 acres; cotton, 6067 acres; sugar-cane, 5051 acres; vegetables, 5157 acres; tobacco, 1389 acres; and poppy, 764 acres. Revenue, £11,257. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, *munsif*, and honorary magistrate. These officers preside over 3 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 113 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 339.

Jagádhri.—Town and municipality in Ambálá (Umballa) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Jagádhri *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 30° 10′ N., and long. 77° 20′ 45″ E., a little west of the river Jumna (Jamuná), thirty-seven miles south-east of Ambálá city, and three miles north of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Population (1872) 11,676; (1881) 12,300, namely, Hindus, 9242; Muhammadans, 2853; Jains, 134; Sikhs, 60; and 'others,' 11. Number of houses, 2423. Prior to the Sikh invasions, Jagádhri was a mere village; but Rái Singh of Búria, the Sikh conqueror, encouraged the commercial and manufacturing classes to settle on the spot, so that a considerable trade rapidly sprang up, and it is now a town of considerable importance. It was destroyed by Nádir Sháh during one of his incursions, but rebuilt in 1783 by Rái Singh. The town lapsed to the British Government, together with the territory whose capital it formed, in 1829. Imports of copper and iron from the hills, as also from Calcutta and Bombay; and considerable manufactures are carried on in these metals, for which the town has obtained some celebrity. Ornamental lamps and other forms of brass ware are exceptionally well made. Household vessels and tools are exported to the North-Western Provinces and throughout the Punjab. Refinery of borax, brought from the hills, and exported to Bengal. Manufacture of oxide of lead, for use by goldsmiths and in native medicines. *Tahsíli*, police office, rest-house. A native banker supplies a dole of half a *ser* (about 1 lb.) of flour to travellers or paupers. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £1523, or 2s. 5½d. per head of population (12,540) within municipal limits.

Jagalúr.—Village in Chitaldrúg (Chitaldroog) District, Mysore State, and head-quarters of Kankuppa *tálúk*. Lat. 14° 31′ N., long. 76° 24′ E.; 22 miles north-west by road from Chitaldrúg town. Population (1881) 2510, mostly Lingáyats. Houses built of an iron-shot slaty stone, and flat-roofed; large tank.

Jagan.—Town in the Sukkur Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1872) 2556, namely, Muhammadans (chiefly of the Bháya tribe), 2167, and Hindus, 389; under 2000 in 1881. Twelve miles north-west of Shikárpur.

Jagannáth.—Temple in Purí District, Orissa.—*See* PURI.

Jagatsinghpur.—Village in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated on the Máchhgáon Canal, in lat. 20° 15′ 50″ N., and long. 86° 12′ E. Population (1869) estimated at 4732; not returned separately in the Census of 1872 or of 1881.

Jagdalpur.—Chief town of BASTAR State, Central Provinces, and residence of the Rájá. Lat. 19° 6′ N., and long. 82° 4′ E. The place is a collection of huts, surrounded by a mud wall and deep ditch, with one face resting on the Indrávatí, here a stream about a hundred yards wide. Total population (1881) 4294, namely, Hindus, 3980, and Muhammadans, 314. The Muhammadan resident merchants occupy the best houses. Travelling merchants, who bring ponies, camels, *chogás*, dates, etc. for sale, reside outside the walls. A large tank lies close to the town; and the country is open, well cultivated, and dotted with villages and groves. Jagdalpur is 40 miles from the capital of the Jaipur (Jeypore) State, where there is an Assistant Agent subordinate to Vizagapatam, a police officer, and a strong police force.

Jagdíspur.—Town and municipality in Sháhábád District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 28′ 5″ N., and long. 84° 28′ 1″ E. Population (1872) 9400; (1881) 12,568, namely, Hindus, 10,092; Muhammadans, 2474; 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 6518 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £168; rate of taxation, 3d. per head of population. The residence and head-quarters of the estate of Kuár Singh, a Rájput chief who threw in his lot with the mutineers of 1857. He was the principal leader of the attack and siege of the Judge's House at Arrah, in which the British residents, supported by a company of loyal Sikh troops, sought refuge after the rising of the Sepoys at Dinapur.

Jagdíspur.—*Parganá* in Musáfirkhána *tahsíl*, Sultánpur District, Oudh. During the Bhar supremacy, this part of the country consisted of two *parganás*, Sáthan and Kishni. On the extirpation of the Bhars by the Musalmáns, these divisions were amalgamated, and the head-quarters fixed at Jagdíspur, which gave its name to the *parganá*. Area, 155 square miles, or 99,104 acres, of which 51,650 acres are cultivated and 19,125 acres available for cultivation. About one-half

of the cultivated area is irrigated. Government land revenue, £11,054; average incidence, 2s. 2¾d. per acre. Population (1869) 100,103; (1881) 90,138: namely, Hindus, 69,955; Muhammadans, 20,183; average density, 581 persons per square mile. Number of villages, 166. Trade in grain, cloth, and other country produce, carried on chiefly by means of the Rái Bareli and Faizábád (Fyzábád) road, but also by the Gúmti, which flows along the western boundary. Eleven villages with schools; 2 post-offices.

Jagdíspur-Nihalgarh.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Jagdíspur *parganá*. Lat. 26° 27′ N., long. 81° 40′ E. Of no importance except as the head-quarters of the *parganá*. Population (1881) 2016, residing in 395 houses. Small market, police station, Government school.

Jaggayyapet (*Jaggiapetta*).—Town in Nandigama *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 52′ N., long. 80° 9′ E. Population (1871) 9150; (1881) 10,072, of whom 25 per cent. are merchants and their families. In point of religion the population is thus divided—Hindus, 9208; Muhammadans, 851; Christians, 13. Area of town site, 9160 acres. Jaggayyapet is a prosperous trading and weaving town near the main road between Haidarábád (Hyderábád) and Masulipatam, and close to the frontiers of the Nizám's Dominions—a position which until recently laid it open to the plundering inroads of Rohillá bands. The traders are chiefly Márwári settlers from the Haidarábád country. The chief staple is opium. Jaggayyapet is the station of a sub-magistrate. The town is walled in by a decayed mud embankment. It was formerly called Betavolu, until Vasireddi Venkatádri Naidu enclosed it with a wall, and called it after the name of his father Jaggayya. Geologically the place is of interest as the extreme north-east corner of the great Cuddapah-Kurnool rock series, and as the supposed site of a coal-field, though the existence of a coal-field is not admitted by the Geological Survey. Near the town in 1882 were found the remains of a Buddhist *stúpa*, dating from two hundred years before the Christian era.

Jágír (literally, '*A Grant of Landed Estate by the Sovereign Power*').—The historical name for a tract of country corresponding almost precisely with the present District of CHENGALPAT, Madras Presidency. The first important territorial possession of the East India Company in Southern India. Granted by the Nawáb of Arcot in return for the services rendered to him and his father by the Company in 1760, and confirmed by a *sanad* or deed of grant from the Emperor Sháh Alam in 1763.

Jagráon.—Western *tahsíl* of Ludhiáná District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 33′ to 30° 59′ N., and long. 75° 24′ to 75° 44′ E. Area, 409 square

miles. Population (1881) 158,767, namely, males 85,621, and females 73,146. Hindus numbered 55,608; Sikhs, 46,617; Muhammadans, 55,789; and 'others,' 753. Revenue, £24,185. The administrative staff of the *tahsil* consists of a *tahsíldár* and *munsif*, who preside over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 52 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 153.

Jagráon.—Town and municipality in Ludhiáná District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Jagráon *tahsil*. Situated in lat. 30° 47′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 30′ 45″ E., on the Ludhiáná and Firozpur (Ferozepore) road, 29 miles south-west of Ludhiáná city. Population (1868) 15,881; (1881) 16,873, namely, Muhammadans, 9102; Hindus, 6093; Sikhs, 1372; Jains, 302; 'others,' 4. Number of houses, 2548. Jagráon belonged under the Mughals to the Ráis of Ráikot, and was made over by Ranjít Singh in 1806 to Fateh Singh Ahluwália. Brisk trade in grain and other country produce; the mercantile community is, however, migratory. *Tahsíli*, police station, school-house, *sarái*, dispensary. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £947, or 1s. 7⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Jahálu.—Town in Bijnaur District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* JHALU.

Jahánábád.—Sub-division of Gayá District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 59′ 15″ to 25° 19′ N., and long. 84° 30′ to 85° 16′ E. Area, 607 square miles; towns and villages, 1454; houses, 61,157. Population (1872) 358,419; (1881) 385,189, of whom Hindus numbered 348,170, or 90·39 per cent.; Muhammadans, 37,004, or 9·60 per cent.; and Christians, 15. Proportion of males, 49·8 per cent.; average density of population, 634 per square mile; inhabitants per village, 265; houses per square mile, 106; inmates per house, 6·3. This Sub-division comprises the two police circles of Arwal and Jahánábád. It contained (1883) 2 criminal courts, 73 regular police, and 361 village watchmen.

Jahánábád.—Town in Gayá District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Jahánábád Sub-division. Lat. 25° 13′ 10″ N., long. 85° 2′ 10″ E.; situated on the Murahar or Dardha river, and on the Patná branch road, 31 miles due north of Gayá city. Population (1881) 5286, namely, Hindus, 3841, and Muhammadans, 1445. Area of town site, 160 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £120; rate of taxation, 1½d. per head of municipal population (21,022); local police, 15 men. Contains the usual public buildings, lock-up, *dák* and inspection bungalows, dispensary, and post-office. Three brick houses, said to have been built by the Dutch, are all that now remain of a once flourishing trade. In 1760, Jahánábád formed one of the eight minor branches connected with the Central Cloth Factory of the East India Company at Patná. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton states that in his time (1807–13) the town contained about 700 houses, a cloth factory, and a native agency for the manufacture of saltpetre.

During the last twenty years, since the introduction of Manchester goods, the manufacture of cotton cloth has entirely ceased; but large numbers of the Juláha or weaver class still live in the neighbourhood.

Jahánábád.—Sub-division of Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 45′ 30″ to 23° 12′ N., and long. 87° 28′ 45″ to 88° 3′ 30″ E. Area, 438 square miles; towns and villages, 649; houses, 71,102. Population (1872) 400,407; (1881) 352,596, of whom 304,706, or 86·4 per cent., were Hindus; and 47,890, or 13·6 per cent., Muhammadans. The decrease of 47,811 persons, or 11·94 per cent., in nine years is mainly due to the epidemic fever which has been raging throughout the Districts of the Bardwán and Presidency Divisions for so many years. Proportion of males, 47·4 per cent.; average density of population, 805 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·48; persons per village, 543; houses per square mile, 175; persons per house, 5. This Sub-division comprises the three police circles of Jahánábád, Goghát, and Khanakúl. In 1883 it contained two civil and two criminal courts, a regular police force of 114, and a village police of 1897 men.

Jahánábád.—Town and head-quarters of Jahánábád Sub-division, in Húglí District, Bengal; situated on the river Dhálkisor, in lat. 22° 53′ N., long. 87° 49′ 50″ E. Population (1872) 13,409; (1881) 10,507, namely, Hindus, 7743, and Muhammadans, 2764. Area of town site, 1920 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £219; rate of taxation, 4¾d. per head of municipal population. Dispensary.

Jahánábád (or *Korá*).—Town in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 6′ 2″ N., and long. 80° 24′ 18″ E. Remarkable chiefly for its handsome architectural remains, which include the Báradari of Ráo Lál Bahádur, a large enclosed garden with pleasure houses, built towards the close of the last century under the Oudh Wazírs; the Thákurdwára, a fine modern edifice; the Sorahi or mausoleum, a mile west of the town; and the *sarái*, a magnificent building with ancient walls and gates.

Jahángírábád.—Town in Anúpshahr *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 24′ N., long. 78° 8′ 45″ E. Situated 15 miles east of Bulandshahr town. Founded by the Badgújar Rájá, Ani Rái, who named the town after his patron Jahángír. Population (1872) 9408; (1881) 10,319, namely, Hindus, 7722, and Muhammadans, 2597. Area of town site, 121 acres. Growing trade, local manufactures of printed cloths for counterpanes and table-covers, also of native carriages and sacred cars. Mosque, school, *sarái*, police station, post-office. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The land surrounding the town is highly cultivated, bearing rich crops of safflower and cereals. Weekly market held on Wednesdays.

Jahángírábád.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the high-road to Bahráich, 29 miles east of Sítápur town, and 8 miles east of Biswán. A weaving town, containing many Muhammadan Juláhas, or weavers of coarse country cloth. Population (1882) 2517. Good bi-weekly market, Government school.

Jaházgarh (or *Georgegarh*).—Fortress in Rohtak District, Punjab, near the town of Jhajhar; built, according to Thornton, by the military adventurer George Thomas, at the close of the last century, and called after his own name, but corrupted by the natives into the existing form. In 1801, the Maráthás invested the fort, and Thomas with difficulty made his escape to Hánsi, where he met with his final defeat. He then abandoned all his conquests, and retired into British territory as a private person, to die at Berhampur in Lower Bengal. A cattle fair is held here in March and October.

Jahazpur.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Jahazpur contains about 2000 houses, and lies below a fort built on an isolated hill. The hill is oblong in shape, and guards the eastern entrance of an important pass leading through the hills from Búndi into Mewár. The *parganá*, of which the town is the capital, contains 100 villages, the population of which is composed entirely of the tribe of Mínas. The fort is large and strong, and consists of two ramparts, one within the other, a broad space between. Each rampart has a deep ditch and numerous bastions.

Jahnavi.—River in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, and one of the tributaries of the BHAGIRATHI; rises in lat. 30° 55′ N., long. 79° 14′ E., and, holding first a northerly and then a westerly course, joins the main stream near the temple of Bhairogháti. Total length, 30 miles.

Jaigarh (*Fort Victory*).—Seaport and village in Ratnágiri Subdivision, Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat. 17° 17′ N., and long. 73° 15′ E., at the southern entrance to the Shástri or Sangameswar river, 99 miles south of Bombay city. It contained 2442 inhabitants in 1872, but the population is not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881. The harbour forms a bay two miles long and five miles broad, with deep water, and well protected against winds. Annual value of trade for the five years ending 1881–82, £54,347, namely, exports, £21,365, chiefly firewood and molasses; and imports, £33,982, principally rice and salt. Jaigarh is now little more than a fishing village, with a custom-house and post-office. The fort, which occupies an area of four acres, is situated close to the shore on gently rising ground about 200 feet above the sea. The walls and bastions are, except in a few places, still in good repair, but are gradually decaying. The fort was originally built by the Bijápur kings, and was afterwards the retreat of a noted Hindu pirate, the Naik of Sangameswar,

who was sufficiently powerful to resist two combined expeditions of the Portuguese and Bijápur forces sent against him in 1583 and 1585. In 1713, Jaigarh passed into the hands of the famous Maráthá sea-robber, Angria; and in June 1818, on the downfall of the Peshwá, was surrendered to the British.

Jainagar.—Town, municipality, and police station in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 10′ 55″ N., long. 88° 27′ 40″ E. Population (1872) 7772; (1881) 7685, namely, Hindus, 7112, and Muhammadans, 573. Area of town site, 1200 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £467; rate of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head of population; police force, 14 men. Jainagar is situated near the old bed of the Ganges, which has been dammed across, and forms at this place a continuous line of tanks, by one of which are some Hindu temples. Large *bázár;* English school under Hindu management. Communication between Jainagar and Calcutta is maintained by a small watercourse leading into Tolly's Canal; and the construction of a feeder road, from Jainagar to the Mugra station on the Diamond Harbour Railway, would bring the place within easy reach of Calcutta.

Jainagar.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 34′ 45″ N., and long. 86° 11′ E., a few miles south of the Nepál frontier, and a little east of the river Kamlá. Population (1872) 2663; (1881) 3141. Contains the ruins of a mud fort attributed to Alá-ud-dín, Governor of Bengal, and said to have been constructed about 1573, to resist the incursions of the hill tribes. Near the fort is an encampment made by the English during the Nepálese war. The Jainagar indigo and sugar factory is now closed. The town is in easy communication with all parts of the District.

Jaintia.—A tract of country in the Province of Assam; once a State under an independent Rájá, but now divided into the JAINTIA HILLS (which form part of the District of the Khási and Jaintia Hills) and the Jaintia plains (incorporated with Sylhet District). This article refers only to the latter tract, which contains an area of 463 square miles. It consists of the strip of low-lying country of varying width that extends between the Jaintia Hills on the north, and the main stream of the Barák or Surmá river on the south.

Rájendra Singh, the last Rájá of Jaintia, was a petty chief whose family had risen to importance amid the ruins of the Cachari kingdom at the close of the last century. Like the neighbouring rulers, they had adopted some form of Hinduism as their dominion became organized; and in this case, the worship of the bloodthirsty Kálí was selected as the national religion. Several shrines of this goddess in Jaintia are still frequented places of pilgrimage. The abomination of human sacrifice, which was of common occurrence, led to repeated remonstrance from the British Government. In

1832, three British subjects were carried off from Nowgong District and immolated at a popular shrine of Kálí. Rájá Rájendra Singh was himself charged with complicity in this outrage, and in 1835 the Governor-General issued a proclamation declaring his deposition and the annexation of the plain portion of his territory to Sylhet. The Rájá voluntarily resigned the hill tract, and of this we also took possession. He was granted a pension of £600 a year, and resided peaceably in Sylhet until his death in 1861.

Between 1838 and 1840, the Jaintia plains were surveyed by Lieutenant (now General) Thuillier, who found the total area to be 459 square miles, of which about one-third was under cultivation. The former native Government is described as a pure despotism. The revenue was received by the Rájá partly in produce and partly in labour, and all tenures were voidable at his will. No class of persons had any recognised rights in the land, but the more substantial cultivators called themselves *mirásdárs*, the Sylhet equivalent for *zamíndár*. Over the cultivators were officials known as *chaudharís*, who acted as revenue collectors or *tahsíldárs*.

After British annexation, a temporary land settlement was concluded with the cultivators for a term of five years, renewed from time to time up to April 1856, from which year a resettlement for a term of twenty years was effected. In 1853, when Mr. Mills drew up his valuable report upon Sylhet, the total land revenue paid was £4455; the number of estates was 20,677, showing an average assessment of only 3s. 4d. on each estate; nearly half the estates paid less than 2s. each a year, and only 3 paid more than £25. By 1874-75, the current demand of land revenue had risen to £6762, and the number of estates to 21,194. A resettlement of the 18 *parganás* or fiscal divisions into which this tract is divided was commenced in 1875; but early in the following year, the work was for a time suspended, owing to the attitude of organized hostility assumed by the inhabitants of certain villages. They refused in a body to point out their lands to the *amíns* or native surveyors, under some misapprehension of the mode in which the measurements were to be made. Argument and persuasion by the European settlement officer having been employed in vain, it was found necessary to have recourse to Act xx. of 1848, and punish the ringleaders by the imposition of daily fines. The settlement operations have since been renewed without encountering any active opposition. Further information concerning the Jaintia plains is included in the article on SYLHET DISTRICT.

Jaintia Hills (*Jowai*).—For administrative purposes, the Jaintia Hills are regarded as a Sub-division of the Khási and Jaintia Hills District, in the Province of Assam. This tract covers an area of about 2000 square miles; bounded north by the District of Nowgong (Naugáon), east by

Cachar, south by Sylhet, and west by the Khási Hills. The administrative head-quarters and the residence of the Assistant Commissioner are at the station of JOWAI.

As compared with the semi-independent States in the Khási Hills, the Sub-division of the Jaintia Hills is treated as British territory, having been voluntarily surrendered by the native Rájá in 1835 (*vide* JAINTIA). When we first assumed charge, no change was made in the indigenous revenue system, which consisted simply in the payment of a he-goat once a year by each village. The Rájá had derived the greater part of his income from his possessions in the plains. In 1860, however, a house-tax was imposed, the highest limit of which was 2s. per house. This measure of direct taxation was very obnoxious to the hillmen. They formed irregular gatherings, at which they refused to pay except through their own hereditary Rájá, who was then living under surveillance in Sylhet District. An outbreak took place in the beginning of the year, which was promptly suppressed, and a general disarmament was ordered. Towards the close of 1860, fresh taxation was introduced, in the form of judicial stamps and imposts upon fisheries and timber-cutting. At the same time, the elaborate schedules of the new income-tax were thrust into the hands of persons, few of whom could read the language in which they were framed. All these fiscal novelties were introduced without the safeguard that would have resulted from the presence of European officers. Towards the close of 1861, rumours of disturbance were in the air. In January 1862, the hillmen rose in open rebellion, the immediate cause being the interference of a native official with a religious ceremony. The police station at Jowái was burned to the ground, the garrison of Sepoys was closely besieged, and all show of British authority was swept away throughout the hills. The hillmen fought bravely for independence, their weapons being only bows and arrows and the dreaded *pánjí* or bamboo spike, stuck thickly in the paths leading to their fastnesses. At first they were successful in cutting off several detachments of Sepoys and police. Finally it was found necessary to move into the hills a regular army, including an elephant battery and two regiments of Sikhs. After operations both tedious and harassing, the last of the ringleaders was cap[illegible] order was finally restored in March 1863.

The Jaintia Hills are divided into 23 fiscal divisions, of w[illegible] inhabited by Kuki immigrants, and 2 by Mikirs. The [illegible] the inhabitants are Santengs, more commonly called Syntengs, akin to the Khásis, but reported to have distinct ethnical charact[illegible] and a language of their own. Colonel Yule, however, who [illegible] through the country, questions whether any real linguistic or et[illegible] difference exists between the Khásis and the Jaintias. The C[illegible] of 1881 returned the population at 56,448, of whom 47,108

Santengs still professing aboriginal faiths, and 43 Khásís. Hindus numbered 2485; Muhammadans, 176; Christians, 648; unspecified and 'others,' 6235.

The chief crop is rice, grown in the hilly tracts on the nomadic system of agriculture known as *jhúm*, but under permanent irrigated cultivation in the valleys. In the valleys, ploughs and oxen are used; but amid the hills the only agricultural implements are the *dáo* or hill knife and hoe. The most valuable natural product is limestone, which is found on the river banks at seven different places; but only two quarries are worked, the out-turn being despatched by water into Bengal from the Sylhet markets. Coal has been found of excellent quality at five spots, most of which are inaccessible to water traffic. The most extensive of the coal beds is at Lá-ká-dong, within 6 miles of a navigable tributary of the Surmá. This was worked from 1850 to 1856, and about 5000 tons of coal were extracted for exportation. The Santengs, like the Khásís, are keen traders, and retain in their own hands the valuable commerce of their native hills. They frequent the markets at the foot of the hills on the Sylhet side. In 1876–77, the total value of the exports from the Sub-division was estimated at £19,000, including 11,000 *maunds* of raw cotton and 5490 *maunds* of lac. The total imports were valued at £34,560, chiefly £8000 of cotton and woollen cloth, £2500 of silk cloth, 15,000 *maunds* of rice, 6230 loads of dried fish, 3230 *maunds* of salt, and 609 *maunds* of tobacco. No later statistics are available.

In 1880–81, the total revenue of the Jaintia Hills Sub-division amounted to £2366, of which £2279 was derived from the house-tax. This tax is annually assessed by the head-man of each village, whose title is either *dolloi* or *sardár*, upon every house at the rate of 2s. or 4s. These *dollois* or *sardárs* (village heads) are elected by the different village communities, subject to the confirmation of the Deputy Commissioner. They hold office for three years, but are liable to be dismissed for misconduct at any time. Their duties are to collect the revenue, for which they are paid by a commission; and they also exercise minor criminal and police jurisdiction, with power to inflict a fine not exceeding £5, liable, however, to appeal to the Deputy Commissioner.

Jaintiapur (or *Jaintia Bázár*).—Village and *thána* or police station in the north-east of Sylhet District, Assam; situated in lat. 25° 8′ 7″ N., and long. 92° 10′ 2″ E., on the old bed of the Hari river, at the foot of the Jaintia Hills. The weekly market is frequented by Khási and Santeng traders, who bring down the produce of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, and rice. The village was formerly the capital of the Rájá of Jaintia, whose territory was annexed in 1835 in consequence of his being found guilty of complicity in of human

sacrifice. (*Vide* JAINTIA, *ante*, p. 47.) The place contains some interesting architectural remains, marking the transition from the primitive paganism originally practised by the hill tribes to the elaborate Hinduism imported from Bengal—the former symbolized by great monoliths of unhewn stone, now surrounded by Hindu temples and edifices with elaborate carvings and images.

Jaipur (*Jeypore*).—Native State in Rájputána, Central India, under the political superintendence of the Eastern States Agency of Rájputána. Jaipur State is bounded on the north by Bíkaner (Bickaneer), Lohárú Jhajjar, and Patiála; on the east by Alwar (Ulwur), Bhartpur (Bhurtpore), and Karauli; on the south by Gwalior, Bundí (Boondee), Tonk, and Mewár or Udaipur (Oodeypore); on the west by Kishangarh, Jodhpur, and Bíkaner. The State lies between lat. 25° 43′ and 28° 27′ N., and between long. 74° 50′ and 77° 15′ E. Area, 14,465 square miles. Population (1881) 2,534,357.

Physical Aspects.—The general character of the country is tolerably level and open, although its surface is crossed and diversified by groups and ranges of hills and by isolated peaks. The centre of the State is an elevated table-land of triangular form, from 1400 to 1600 feet above sea-level, with a gradual slope to the south-east towards the Banás river. The eastern limit of the State is formed by ranges running north and south along the Alwar border, and at places cut up by numerous deep ravines; towards the north and west it is bounded by a broken chain of hills, an offshoot from the Aravalli mountains, which occupy the apex of the triangle. The hills here rise to a considerable height, with a bold outline; and on the north-west form a natural boundary between the sandy, desert tract of Shaikháwati (or the country of the Shaikháwat clan in the extreme north of the State) and Bíkaner. To the south-east lies the more fertile soil of Jaipur proper. On the east, beyond the range of hills near the capital, there is a rapid fall of some 300 or 400 feet in the first 2 or 3 miles, after which a gradual slope follows the valley of the Bángangá river to the Bhartpur border, and the country becomes more open as it spreads out towards the alluvial flats of the Jumna (Jamuná). In the extreme south of the State, the hills reappear; and in the neighbourhood of Rájmahál, where the Banás river has forced itself through the range, the scenery is remarkable for its beauty. Westward from Jaipur city, the country rises gradually towards the Kishangarh border, consisting in great measure of broad, open, treeless plains, dotted here and there with hills.

The general drainage of Jaipur from the central table-land is to the east and south-east, though a few streams follow the slope to the north-west. The BANAS, the largest river in the State, receives most of the rainfall by means of several tributaries, of which only one or two are

perennial. The BANGANGA reaches the Jumna direct, flowing eastward through Jaipur territory. In the hot season, the surface bed of the Bánganga is often dry. Of their tributaries in Jaipur, the Amán-i-shah, which supplies Jaipur city with water, has a slight flow throughout the year; but other tributaries, such as the Gambhir, the Bándi, the Morel, the Dhúnd, the Máshi, and the Khári, although their beds are frequently of great width, are flooded only in the rains, and are dry during the hot months. The Sabi is the chief river that flows in a northerly direction. It rises about 24 miles due north of Jaipur city, and, after skirting Alwar, passes out into the Nábha State. It is subject to heavy floods. The Kántli flows north-north-west for a distance of about 60 miles through Shaikháwati, and loses itself in the sand as it enters Bikanír territory, at Sánkhu.

South of the dividing range between Shaikháwati and Jaipur, water is found beneath the surface at a depth varying from a few feet (in low-lying land) to 30 or 40 feet; but in Shaikháwati, north of that range, water lies at a great depth, averaging from 80 to 100 feet. It is brackish in many parts where the soil is much impregnated with salt; but sweet water may be found throughout the east and south of the State. The only natural lake of any importance is the Sámbhar salt lake.

The soil of the State in the immediate neighbourhood of Jaipur city, and to the west and north, is generally sandy. There are tracts of barren sand, frequently underlaid by clay and stiff soil mixed with *kankar* (calcareous conglomerate). Eastward along the Bánganga valley, and southward from Jaipur city, the soil is mostly rich and fertile The Shaikháwati tract on the north consists almost entirely of shifting sands.

There are no extensive forests in Jaipur; but the hills near the city and in the south of the State are more or less covered with the *dhao* (Anogeissus latifolius) and other jungle trees, of little value except for fuel. The *babúl* (Acacia arabica) and the *ním* (Azadirachta indica) may be considered as the commonest trees of the country.

No regular geological survey has yet been undertaken of the hill ranges in Jaipur State; but they are said to consist in the north chiefly of granite, and in the south and east of sandstones, mixed sometimes with white or black marble, and occasionally with mica. As they do not contain any fossil remains, they are believed to be primitive rocks belonging to the transitionary series. The hills for the most part rise abruptly from the plain; many are peaked, but others are flat at the top, with edges steeply scarped for some way down the side, thus forming natural fortifications. In the north of the State, where the Khetri Hills meet the Alwar range, a great geological disturbance has taken place, the granite of the Aravalli mountains bursting through and upheaving the sandstones of the Alwar chain, thus exposing alum shales

and rich veins of copper ore, cobalt, and nickel. Copper mines are worked to a small extent in the neighbourhood of Khetri; but owing to the want of proper appliances for keeping down the water, the richest veins, which are lowest, cannot be reached. Cobalt is found in thin layers between the veins of copper ore. It is much used at Jaipur city for enamelling, and is exported for that purpose to Delhi and Haidarábád (Hyderábád) in the Deccan. In addition to these minerals, salt is largely manufactured at, and exported from, the SAMBHAR LAKE, situated in lat. 26° 58′ N., and long. 75° 5′ E., on the borders of Jodhpur. The average yearly out-turn of salt is 150,000 tons. Good building stone, chiefly sandstone and marble, is plentiful. At Bánkri, 36 miles east of Jaipur city, and near the Dosá (Dausa) railway station, huge slabs (some of them 30 feet long) of a foliated mica schist, valuable for roofing, are quarried. Coarse grey marble comes from Raiwála, near the Alwar border, and a black marble, used for inlaying work, is obtained at Kot Putli. Abundance of excellent limestone is procured from Raháon, 7 miles north of the Kánauta railway station, and *kankar* is found almost everywhere, generally in flat beds instead of nodules. Carbuncles are procured in large quantities in the south of the State, near Rájmahál; and it is said that turquoises were formerly found in the same neighbourhood, near Todah.

Agriculture.—In Shaikháwati, there is generally but one crop in the year—raised during the rainy season, and ripening in October–November. The crop consists chiefly of *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), and *moth* (Phaseolus aconitifolius). In the north of Jaipur proper, the crop of the rainy season is the same as in Shaikháwati, but a little wheat and barley are grown in the cold season. Towards the south and east, as the soil becomes richer and firmer, *joár* (Holcus sorghum) and Indian corn, with cotton and *til* (Sesamum), are grown in the rainy season; while in the cold season, wheat, barley, gram, sugar-cane, opium, tobacco, *dál*, and linseed are extensively raised. In the eastern districts, rice of a coarse quality is cultivated to a limited extent. Few traces of former irrigation works exist; but since 1868, the State has spent at least £5000 annually in improving the irrigation of the country. In 1882–83, the State expended on irrigation works a sum of £23,862; the income from irrigation works was £14,025 in the same year.

Population.—The first regular Census in the State of Jaipur was taken in February 1881, and disclosed a population of 2,534,357 persons, of whom 1,369,134 were returned as males, and 1,165,223 as females. The late Máharájá doubted the success of a Census in Rájputána, as a previous similar undertaking by him in his own territory had failed, owing to strong Rájput conservatism and disinclina-

tion to make public declaration of family surroundings. The total population of 2,534,357 was returned as dwelling in 34 towns and 5930 villages, and occupying 507,697 houses. Number of persons per square mile, 175; number of houses per square mile, 35; number of persons per house, 5. Of the total population, 2,315,219 were returned as Hindus; 170,907 as Muhammadans; 552 as Christians; 47,672 as Jains; and 7 as Pársís. Of the Hindus, 351,004 were Bráhmans and 124,345 Rájputs; other Hindu castes numbered 1,887,542, including 242,474 Máhajans or Baniyás; 6641 Kachis; 171,632 Gújars; 227,321 Játs; 54,665 Ahírs; 221,565 Mínás; 209,094 Chamárs; and 706,478 of other inferior castes. Of the Muhammadans, the sect of Shaikhs numbered 50,690; Sayyids, 7798; Mughals, 27,216; Patháns, 3780; 'others,' 81,423. Of the Hindu independent sects in the State who have a peculiar doctrine and worship, the most notable is the Dádu Panthí, which had its origin, and still has its head-quarters, at Baráhána, near the Sambhar lake. At the lake is a shrine and monastery built near the spot where the founder of the faith, Dádu, vanished. Dádu lived in the time of Akbar (16th century). His devotees shave the head and preach mysticism and morality as interpreted by his successors, the priests, at the shrine; they traverse the land on regular circuit to spread the word, and commune with disciples. The militant devotees belonging to this sect are known as *Nágas*, and are enrolled in regiments to serve the State; they are vowed to celibacy and to arms, and constitute a sort of military order in the sect.—*See* NARAINA.

Commerce, etc.—The most noticeable feature in the commerce of the State is the large banking and exchange business carried on at the capital and in the large towns. The chief manufactures of Jaipur are —marble sculpture; enamel work on gold, for which the artisans are justly famous; woollen cloth, and other fabrics. An extensive dyeing trade is carried on at Sanganer, near the capital. The principal trade route of the State is the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway, by which the Sámbhar salt is carried to the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, and by which also nearly the whole of the imports, such as English piece-goods, hardware, spices, grain, and Rohilkhand sugar are conveyed. The price of salt in 1882 was two shillings (1 rupee) for 30 pounds. There is but little traffic northward from the capital, as the trade of Shaikháwati travels principally either north-east to the great mart of Bháwani in Hissár or south-west to Ajmír. The principal export from Shaikháwati is wool; the imports are sugar, piece-goods, hardware, spices, and tobacco. Owing to the sandy nature of the soil, camels are used almost entirely in the Shaikháwati trade. The Mandáwár and Karauli road is an important trade route for all the cotton, grain, oil-seeds, raw sugar, tobacco, etc. grown

in the south and east of the State, where Hindaun is the principal mart. Copper and brass vessels are largely manufactured at the town of Siwai Mádhupur, and exported southwards *viá* Indargarh into the Haráoti States. Other important roads passing through the State are the Agra and Ajmír road, and the Jaipur and Tonk road. The Agra-Ajmír road is much less used since the opening of the railway to Ajmír. A black marble is obtained at Baisláná; cobalt and sulphate of copper in the hills near Khetri. The amount of customs revenue to the State was £73,109 in 1882.

There is a mint at the capital which turns out gold mohurs, rupees, and copper coins. The Jaipur coinage is distinguished by the *jhar* or sprig borne on the obverse. The gold mohur weighs 167·8 grains, the metal being absolutely pure. The rupee, which is alloyed with 4½ grains troy of copper, weighs 175 grains.

Communications. — The Rájputána - Málwá State Railway on the metre (narrow) gauge runs from Agra to Jaipur city, and thence to Ajmír, with a branch line to Nasírábád (Nusseerábád). The line runs for 150 miles through Jaipur territory. It eventually joins the broad gauge line from Bombay at Ahmadábád in Gujarát. A line from Delhi, also on the metre gauge, and a part of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway system, joins at Bandikui station in Jaipur territory. Short branches connect the towns on the Sámbhar Salt Lake with this system. The whole number of railway stations in the State was 22 in 1881. The Agra and Ajmír road is 127 miles long, metalled almost throughout. Its general direction is from east to west across the Jaipur territory, and the railway carries most of its ancient traffic. The Jaipur and Tonk road, 68 miles, is now completed. This road passes the towns of Sanganer, Chátsú, and Newaí. A third main road leads from Mandáwár on the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway to the borders of the Karauli territory, 49 miles distant. A heliograph communication with Fatehgarh in Shaikháwati is maintained by certain opium merchants to record the rise or fall in the price of the drug from day to day. There are 22 post-offices in the State.

Education has made greater progress in Jaipur than in any other of the Rájputána States. The Mahárájá's college at Jaipur city had a daily attendance, in 1882, of 628 students, who receive a good education in English, Sanskrit, and the vernacular languages, and are prepared for the matriculation and Arts Examination of the Calcutta University. There is also a school for the sons of Thákurs and high officials, with a daily attendance, in 1882, of 15, a Sanskrit college (daily attendance 100), and an industrial school (daily attendance 97). There are 12 girls' schools in the State; pupils (1882), 547. In the country districts there are 45 elementary schools, wholly supported and periodically inspected by the State, with 1065 pupils in 1882;

and 410 indigenous schools, with an aggregate attendance of 8220 pupils. Instruction is given both in Hindí and Urdu. The average annual cost of educating a young chief at the '*Nobles' School*' is £30. In 1882, £615 was spent on female education.

Besides the capital, Jaipur, the principal towns in the State are:—Chaken, population (1881) 6219; Amer, 5036; Lálsot, 8743; Dosa, 7384; Báswa, 5791; Gijgarh, 5171; Hindaun, 12,761; Toda Bhim, 7142; Bamniawás, 6125; Gangápur, 5880; Mádhopur, 14,075; Síkar, 17,739; Malpura, 8212; Sámbhar, 10,794; Sri-Mádhopur, 6847; Fatehpur, 14,731; Rámgarh, 11,313; Nawalgarh, 10,032; Jhunjhnu, 9538; Udaipur, 9161; Lachhmangarh, 8713; Bissau, 6546; Chiráwa, 5489; Singhána, 5259; Surajgarh, 5250, Patan, 11,886; Kot-Putli, 8084; Khandela, 7949; Jilo (Patan), 5941; Bairath, 5649; Mandra, 5567; Toda, 5546; and Khetri, 5283, all of which see separately.

History.—The Mahárájá of Jaipur is the chief of the Kachhwáha tribe of Rájputs, and claims descent from Ráma, King of Ajodhya (Oudh). Between the mythical Ráma and Dhola Ráo, who founded the Jaipur State in A.D. 967, thirty-four generations are said to have intervened. At the time of the foundation of Jaipur, Rájputána was divided among petty Rájput and Mína chiefs, owing allegiance to the great Tuár dynasty of Rájputs, who then reigned at Delhi. Dhola Ráo and his Kachhwáhas are said to have absorbed or driven out the petty chiefs, and to have founded a substantial dominion, known as Amber, Jaipur, or Dhúndar. Half a century later, the Kachhwáha chief, Hamají, wrested Amber from the Mínas, and Amber remained the capital until 1728, when the second Jai Singh abandoned it for Jaipur. The ninth chief in succession from Hamají was Udikaran, the grandfather of Shaikh, who conquered for himself the District now held by the Shaikháwati sept of the Kachhwáha clan.

On the irruption of the Mughals into Hindustán, Jaipur State at once succumbed to their supremacy, and the Jaipur house furnished some of their most distinguished military leaders. At this period, Bahárma, one of the twelve sons of Prithwi Rájá, was ruler in Jaipur, and to him among Rájputs is attached the discredit of having been the first prince of the dynasty who paid homage to the Muhammadan power. Bahárma's son, Bhagwán Dás, became still more nearly allied to the Mughals; for he is noted as one of the first instances of a prince who 'sullied Rájput purity by matrimonial alliance with the Islamite,' by giving his daughter in marriage to Prince Salim, who afterwards mounted the throne of Delhi as Jahángir. The adopted son of Bhagwán Dás, Mán Singh, was one of the most conspicuous of the imperial generals. Mán Singh fought in Orissa, Bengal, and Assam; and at a critical period, under great difficulties, he maintained his authority as Governor of Kábul.

He was rewarded with the governments of Bengal, Behár, and the Deccan. The next chief of note is Jai Singh, the nephew of Mán Singh, commonly known by his imperial title of Mírzá Rájá. His name appears in all the wars of Aurangzeb in the Deccan. It was Jai Singh who contrived to capture Sivají, the celebrated founder of the Maráthá power. Eventually, it is said, Aurangzeb, becoming jealous of Jai Singh, caused his death by poison.

Passing over three chiefs, we come to Jai Singh II., commonly known as Siwái Jai Singh. Siwái is a title given by the Mughal Emperor, and adopted by his descendants to this day. The word means one-and-a-quarter, and is supposed to measure the superiority of the bearer to all his contemporaries, whom the unit signifies. Jai Singh II., who ascended the throne in 1699, was chiefly remarkable for his scientific knowledge and skill. He caused many mathematical works to be translated into Sanskrit. He constructed observatories at Jaipur, Delhi, Benares, Muttra, and Ujjain, by which he was able to correct the astronomical tables of De La Hire, and to leave, as a monument of his skill, lists of stars collated by himself, known as the 'Tij Muhammad Sháhi,' or Tables of Muhammad Shah, the then Emperor of Delhi, in whose favour Jai Singh stood high. Removing his capital from the hills about Amber, where it had hitherto been placed, he laid out and built the present Jaipur (Jeypore) in 1728. The ancient capital Amber, and the modern capital Jaipur, are about five miles distant from each other.

At a later period, the Rájás of Jaipur united with Udaipur (Mewár) and Jodhpur (Márwár) to resist the Muhammadan power. To regain the honour of intermarriage with Udaipur, which his family had lost by giving a princess to the Mughal Emperor, the Rájá of Jaipur now consented that the issue of an Udaipur princess should succeed in preference to an elder son by other wives. This attempt to set aside the right of primogeniture brought great disasters both on Jaipur and Jodhpur. About this time the Játs of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore), after several successful encounters with the Jaipur chief, annexed a portion of this State. The defection of the chief of Alwar, about the year 1790, further reduced the limits of the territory.

By the end of the century, Jaipur had fallen into great confusion, being distracted by internal broils, and impoverished by the exactions of the Maráthás, who had also entered the State. In 1803, political relations were first entered into with the British Government, the object being to form a league against the Maráthás; but the alliance was dissolved by Lord Cornwallis. Meanwhile, the disputes between the Rájás of Jaipur and Jodhpur for the hand of the daughter of the Udaipur chief had brought both States to the verge of ruin, and Amír Khán, with his Pindárí mercenaries and marauders, was exhausting

the country. In 1817, negotiations began again; and in 1818, a treaty was signed, by which the protection of the British Government was extended to Jaipur, and an annual tribute fixed.

Two successive minorities which followed the death of Jagat Singh in 1818, gave opportunities for strife about the succession, and for much misgovernment. In 1835, on the succession of the late Mahárájá, Siwái Rám Singh, then two years old, as the result of a court intrigue, a serious disturbance in the city took place, in which Colonel Alves, the agent of the Governor-General in Rájputána, was wounded, and his assistant, Mr. Martin Blake, murdered. After this, the British Government took measures to insist upon order, to reform the administration as well as to support its effective action; and the State has gradually become well governed and prosperous. When the Mutiny broke out in 1857, the Mahárájá at once placed the whole of his available military power at the disposal of the Political Agent, and in every way assisted the British Government. He was rewarded with the grant of the *parganá* of Kot Kásim. He also received a *sanad* granting the privilege of adoption. For his praiseworthy behaviour and liberality during the famine in Rájputána in 1868, he received an addition of 2 guns to his salute for life; and in 1877, this was again raised, making his personal salute 21 guns. For his general services and loyalty, he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Order of the Star of India, and nominated Counsellor of the Empress. Siwái Rám Singh died on the 18th September 1880, leaving no direct heir, and was succeeded by Kaim Singh (the younger brother of the Thákur of Isarda, and a descendant of the second son of Mahárájá Jagat Singh), whom the chief had adopted on his death-bed. Kaim Singh, who on accession assumed the name of Siwái Mádho Singh, was born in 1861. In consideration of his youth, the administration of the State was conducted for two years by a council under the joint-presidency of the Mahárájá and the Resident. On attaining his majority in September 1882, the chief, Kaim Singh, was invested with full governing powers.

The right of succession, in the event of failure of direct heirs, is supposed to be vested in the Rájáwat family or the descendants of the stock of Prithwi Rájá, one of the former rulers. Prithwi Rájá had twelve sons, to whom he gave estates known as the twelve Kotrís. The number of Kotrís, however, is now more than twelve, others having been obtained by descendants of early rulers, while some of the Kotrís created by Prithwi Rájá are extinct. About 70 *lákhs* of rupees (£700,000) from the revenues of the State are alienated in *jágírs* and religious grants, but the available receipts are about £500,000 per annum, which is nearly balanced by the expenditure. In 1882-83, the

revenue was £495,876; and the expenditure, £488,599, including tribute of £40,000 to the British Government.

The military force of the State consists of 65 guns (mostly of small calibre), 716 artillerymen, 3578 cavalry (including *jágírdár* feudal horse), and 9599 infantry (5000 of which belong to special bodies). The number of forts is 29, with an aggregate of 216 guns of all calibres. Both the troops and the ordnance are of indifferent value, but sufficient for maintaining the tranquillity of the country.

Administration.—The Mahárájá, in common with nearly all the chiefs of Rájputána, exercises supreme civil and criminal authority within his territories, and has the power of life and death in respect of his own subjects. The administration is carried on by a council composed of eight members, presided over by the Mahárájá, assisted by a secretary who acts as an *ex officio* member. Four departments—judicial, revenue, military, and external—are under the charge of three members of council, one of whom is a noble of Jaipur, another a native of Rájputána, and the third an official from another part of India. The principal feudatories of the State are Khetri, Síkar, Uniára, Patan, Báswa, Nawalgarh, Mandáwar, and Surajgarh, with the *thákurs* of the twelve Kotrís mentioned above. In 1884, all transit duties, excepting the duty on opium and intoxicating drugs, were abolished by the Mahárájá.

Climate.—The climate is dry and healthy, and malarious fevers are of rare occurrence. In the cold season, the temperature is very agreeable; but in Shaikháwati it is often unpleasantly cold, and hoar-frost frequently remains in the shade till long after sunrise. During the hot season, the winds from the west blow with great force in Shaikháwati and the northern portions of Jaipur; but the sand soon parts with its heat, so that the nights are generally pleasant, and the mornings cool. Towards the south and east, the hot winds are less strong; but owing to the soil not being sandy, the nights and mornings are not so cool. The average annual temperature of Jaipur city, taken from a record of five years, is 81·27° F.; the maximum temperature of 1875 was 106°, and the minimum 38°. In 1881, the maximum was 114°, and the minimum 36·8°. May and June are generally the hottest months; January and February the coldest. There is usually a fair rainfall throughout the State, except in Shaikháwati. Jaipur proper is seldom afflicted with the periodical famines which visit the neighbouring territories, for, being on the verge of the south-east and south-west monsoons, it receives rain from both. Cholera at times makes its appearance, but medical science is generally at hand to check its spread. In 1881, the attendance at the dispensaries scattered through the State, exclusive of the attendance (8833 out-patients, 568 in-patients) at the Mayo Hospital in Jaipur city, was 55,785 out-

patients and 639 in-patients. In the following year (1882), the total patients treated had increased to 72,269 in number. The number of dispensaries was 22 in 1882. Sanitation is obtaining steadily increasing recognition from the State Darbár. Vaccination is freely resorted to. In 1881, 19,088 persons were inoculated, and 30,996 in 1882–83. The medical institutions of the State are under the control of the Residency Surgeon. The rainfall at the capital during the fifteen years ending 1881 amounted to a yearly average of 24 inches; the maximum being 42·5 inches in 1870, the minimum 12·6 inches in 1868. In 1881, the rainfall was 22·81 inches.

Jaipur (*Jeypore*).—Capital of the Native State of Jaipur (Jeypore), Rájputána, Central India. Jaipur is situated in lat. 26° 55′ N., and long. 75° 52′ E., on the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway and the Agra and Ajmír trunk road; 149 miles north-east of Ajmír. Population (1881) 142,578.

Jaipur is the largest town and the chief commercial centre of Rájputána. It is in many respects the finest of modern Hindu cities, and is said to be the only city in India built on a regular plan. The city takes its name Jainagar or Jaipur from the famous Mahárájá Siwái Jai Singh II. It was founded by Jai Singh II. in 1728, and stands in a small plain, conjectured to be the bed of a dried-up lake. Jaipur is surrounded on all sides, except the south, by rugged hills, the summits of which are now, at all important points, crowned with forts. At the end of the ridge, overhanging the city on the north-west, is the chief defensive work, the Nahargarh, or 'Tiger Fort,' the rock face of which is so scarped as to be inaccessible on the south or city side; while on the north, the ridge slopes towards Amber, the ancient capital of the State. A masonry crenelated wall, averaging in height 20 feet, and in thickness 9 feet, encloses the whole city. In the wall are 7 gateways, furnished with screen walls, all built of the same pattern, with 2 kiosks above and machicoulis over the entrance. At intervals are bastions and towers pierced for cannon, while the parapet is loopholed for musketry. The city is remarkable for the regularity and width of its streets. Some of the mosques, temples, and private residences have architectural pretensions. But in many cases the beautiful marble or carved red sandstone of true Hindu architecture has given place to imitations in stucco; and the lofty crenelated walls which line the streets often form a sham façade to mean one-storied tenements. The town has an air of unreality, and an appearance of being rapidly made to order; but AMBER, the ancient deserted city overhanging the mountain lake, five miles to the north-east, is as interesting from its genuine architecture as from its picturesque situation and eventful history. Its solid and patient work forms a striking contrast to the plaster-of-Paris ornamentation of the modern

Jaipur. Most of the buildings are of a pink colour. From east to west, Jaipur is a little over 2 miles in length, and in breadth about 1¼ mile. It is laid out in rectangular blocks, and divided by cross streets into six equal portions, which are in turn intersected at regular intervals by narrower paths, the sub-division proceeding until at last the thoroughfares become mere lanes. The main streets, paved, drained, and lighted by gas manufactured outside the city walls, are 111 feet in width, the secondary ones 55 feet, and the smaller 27½ feet. The houses of the nobility and the citizens are in the suburbs. The Mahárájá's palace with its pleasure-grounds occupies the centre of the town, covering about one-seventh of the town area.

Jaipur is a wealthy city. There are as many as 7 banking firms, whose aggregate business amounts to about 2½ crores of rupees (£2,500,000), and who possess a capital of upwards of £6,000,000 sterling. In addition to these firms, there are several minor houses whose collective business may be estimated at half a crore (£500,000) a year. Exchange and banking constitute the greater portion of the trade of the place. The city is well provided with hospitals, dispensaries, almshouses, and schools. There is a School of Arts (with 97 pupils) and an Industrial and Economic Museum, started in 1880. The Mayo Hospital, which is situated in the Rám Newás Gardens, forms one of the principal architectural features of the city; while the Rám Newás Gardens themselves, 70 acres in extent, are among the finest and best laid out in India. The gardens are kept up at a yearly cost of £3000. An Exhibition, which was well attended, was held in Jaipur in 1882. The Jaipur College has been noticed in the account of the State. The mint and the jail are situated in the city. The imperial post-office, the telegraph office, and the Residency for the political officer accredited to the Jaipur court, are outside the city walls, where there are also a staging bungalow and a hotel. A menagerie containing a number of tigers is maintained by the Mahárájá. A large lake called the Manta tank is stocked with crocodiles. Good drinking water is brought into the city from the Aman-i-Sháh river, about 4 miles distant. The water is raised by steam pumps 104 feet into service reservoirs, which command the city, and through which it is delivered in iron pipes under 50 feet pressure.

A regular Census of the city of Jai[illegible] taken [illegible] 870, by which its population was ascertained to [illegible] 847 [illegible] Ce[illegible] of 1881 returned a population [illegible] numbered 100,850; Muham[illegible] 8777. One of the most inte[illegible] observatory (*Jantra*) at the [illegible] in the last century by Mah[illegible] astronomer and mathematici[illegible]

in different cities of the Mughal Empire. The ancient observatory at Jaipur contains dials, azimuth circles, altitude pillars, etc. of huge size, and for the most part built of masonry covered with lime, upon which the graduations were carefully marked. The instruments have suffered much from age and exposure, and have not been used within the present generation. A meteorological observatory is in working order. The average rainfall for fifteen years ending 1881, was 24 inches. Highest maximum temperature in the same year, 117° F.; lowest minimum, 36·8°.

On the summit of a range of hills, a mile and a half east of Jaipur, is a sacred shrine called the Gulta, with a temple dedicated to Surya or the Sun-god. Below the platform, a spring issues, which pours over the rock by a fall of about 70 feet into the valley below. The water of this spring is considered sacred by the Bráhmans. The ancient city of AMBER is perched among the hills between four and five miles to the north-east of Jaipur. The ruins of Amber preserve traces of former splendour, but their solitude and desolation are complete.

Jaipur.—Town in Lakhimpur District, Assam; situated in lat. 27° 15′ N., and long. 95° 26′ E., on the left bank of the Dihing river, on the frontier of the Nágá Hills. In the neighbourhood are extensive coal-fields, with an estimated marketable out-turn of 10 million tons. The river is navigable up to this point by steamers during the rains, and 50 miles higher by boats. The exports are tea, caoutchouc, beeswax, and ivory, valued at £1600; the imports are rice, salt, tobacco, oil, iron, and cloth, valued at £2000. A small guard of Frontier Police is stationed here, occupying the old military cantonment.

Jaipur (*Jayapuram*).—*Zamíndárí* or tributary estate in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; lying between 17° 30′ and 20° N. lat., and 81° 20′ and 84° 4′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Káláhandi in the Central Provinces; on the east by the plain of Vizagapatam; on the south by Rekapalli and Golconda; on the west by Bastár. Area, 9337 square miles. Population (1872) 452,454; (1881) 611,695; houses, 134,111; annual tribute to Government, £1600. The estate comprises the following *táluks*:—Korápat (population, 157,171; houses, 33,824); Náorangpur (population, 93,502; houses, 20,666); Malkangiri (population, 22,558; houses, 5425); Jaipur (Kotipád) (population, 116,117; houses, 24,017); Gunápur (population, 153,822; houses, 34,380); and Ráyágada (population, 68,525; houses, 15,799).

Jaipur *zamíndárí* may be divided into two parts. The larger part, directly under the Rájá and within the jurisdiction of the Assistant Agent, lies on the so-called Jaipur plateau; the other part, consisting of the *táluks* of Gúnapur and Ráyágada, is administered by the Senior Assistant Collector, whose head-quarters are at Párvatípur. 'To

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A regular Census of the city of Jaipur was taken in 1870, by which its population was ascertained to number 137,847 persons; the Census of 1881 returned a population of 142,578, among whom Hindus numbered 100,850; Muhammadans, 32,951; 'others,' unspecified, 8777. One of the most interesting antiquities of the State is the Hindu observatory (*Jantra*) at the capital. The observatory was erected early in the last century by Mahárájá Siwái Jai Singh II., the celebrated astronomer and mathematician, and is the largest of five he constructed

in different cities of the Mughal Empire. The ancient observatory at Jaipur contains dials, azimuth circles, altitude pillars, etc. of huge size, and for the most part built of masonry covered with lime, upon which the graduations were carefully marked. The instruments have suffered much from age and exposure, and have not been used within the present generation. A meteorological observatory is in working order. The average rainfall for fifteen years ending 1881, was 24 inches. Highest maximum temperature in the same year, 117° F.; lowest minimum, 36·8°.

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the east and north-east of Gúnapur lies the Saurá Hill country, consisting of two table-lands, about 200 square miles in extent. North of Gúnapur, the estate runs up in a wedge-like form to a distance of 70 miles, between Káláhandi of the Central Provinces on the west, and Chinna Kimedi on the east, reaching very nearly to 20° N. lat. In the centre of this tract stands out the remarkable group of hills named Nímgiris, which rise to a height of 5000 feet, separated by valleys of not more than 1200 feet from the ranges on either hand. The drainage from the Nímgiris and the neighbouring country flows directly south-east to the sea, forming at Kalingapatam the river Vamsádhára, so called from the bamboos (*vamsa*) growing on its banks, and the Nágávali at Chicacole. Exclusive of large estates held by semi-independent Kandhs, the upper portion of Jaipur *zamíndári* is occupied by three powerful chiefs, one at Godairi, one at Bissemkatak, and the third at Singapur, feudatories of the State' (Carmichael). The population subject to these chiefs (chiefly Kandhs and Saurás) numbers 137,966, the largest villages being Gúnapur, Ráyágada, Singápur, Bissemkatak. The western portion of the country consists of the *táluks* of Jaipur, Náorangpur, and Malkangiri; while the *táluk* of Korápat lies in the east. The principal towns are JAIPUR (1046 houses and 4321 inhabitants), Kotipád (605 houses, 3096 inhabitants), Náorangpur (554 houses, 2843 inhabitants).

The religion of the country is Hindu. Ethnically, the inhabitants include Aryans, Kolarians, and Dravidians. The Aryans are comparatively recent colonists, and comprise the ruling and fighting men and the priests. The cultivators, called *prajas* (literally 'subjects'), number more than two-thirds of the entire population; Aryans represent one-seventeenth; Pariahs, one-sixth. The mountaineers retain far greater independence than the *ráyats* of the Jaipur and Malkangiri plateaux. In the uplands, patriarchal authority is still unassailable; in the lower-lying tracts it is only preserved in parts where the struggle is still carried on between cultivation and jungle.

Every variety of land tenure is found throughout Jaipur. One variety is that in which the ownership of the soil still rests with the people, in contradistinction to the landlord tenure generally held by the *zamíndárs*. Only of late years has the annual gift in token of homage been commuted to a payment in kind or money. In such cases, the landowner is nearly always the head of a village; and though it may be doubted whether he has any right to dispose of the soil for his private interest, he has for ages been in the habit of selling or mortgaging parts of the landed property of the village without reference to the Rájá or his managers. From this patriarchal authority may be traced a regular gradation in the tenures, as they pass by degrees to the paramount authority of the Rájá.

The religious ceremonies and social customs of the various tribes differ but little from one another. The process of fusion of the habits of later immigrants with aboriginal customs is, however, very apparent. In those parts of the country which are in a prosperous condition, ideas and manners imported from the coast Districts are gradually overcoming and absorbing all aboriginal conceptions; but, on the other hand, in jungle-covered and backward lands, the colonists are always corrupted by the superstitions of the indigenous races. Thus in Kotpád and Singápur, highly cultivated and flourishing tracts, the new-comers have taught the earlier races to burn their dead instead of burying them; and the practice of early marriage is spreading among the richer *ráyats*—a custom altogether foreign to aboriginal notions. As an instance of the way in which religious rites are borrowed from the aborigines, the Meriah sacrifice may be quoted. This is believed to be strictly a Kandh rite; it was adopted by the colonists, for there is evidence that it was practised by the former Rájás of this and the neighbouring hill States; and in 1845 the appointment of a Special Agent for the suppression of human sacrifice became necessary. This Agency was abolished in 1861. A familiar example of this aboriginal influence is the increased belief in witchcraft, characteristic of forests and lonely tracts.

The following is Mr. Carmichael's account of the *zamíndárí* tenure:—'At the period of the cession of the Northern Circars, we found the country divided into *haveli* and *zamíndárí*. The *haveli* lands consisted of the old demesne or household lands of the Sovereign and tracts near to towns resumed by the Muhammadans, and appropriated for the support of their numerous garrisons and establishments. These lands the local Faujdárs and Nawábs always retained under their immediate management, parcelling out the rest of the country into *zamíndárís*. . . . But the Muhammadan rulers were impatient of details, and a mode was invented of transacting the business of revenue more in the gross. Its revenue agents, writes Mill, were rendered stationary in the Districts where they collected, and became responsible to Government for the revenue, receiving payment by a percentage or share of what they collected. Under native Governments, everything which was enjoyed, whether office or possession, had a tendency to become hereditary. There was a convenience in preserving in each District the same grand agent of revenue, and after him his son or successor, because each was better acquainted with the people and the resources of the District than, generally speaking, any other man could be. In this manner the situation of these agents became in fact hereditary; and before the period of the English acquisitions, the Persian appellative of *zamíndár* had been generally appropriated to them.'

a long straggling street lined with mud huts. The palace of the Rájá and a large number of pagodas are the only buildings of note.

Jais (*Jais Rokha*, or *Rokha Jais*).—*Parganá* in Salon *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Mohanganj *parganá*; on the east by Amethi *parganá*; on the south by Parshádepur and Ateha *parganás*, the Sái river forming the boundary; and on the west by Rái Bareli *parganá*. A level and generally very fertile tract, but with extensive saline plains (*úsar*) in the east and north, with low-lying lands, subject to annual inundation. Around Jáis town the soil is of exceptional richness, the poppy plant being extensively cultivated. Area, 154½ square miles, or 98,882 acres, of which 84,443 acres are cultivated and 13,531 available for cultivation. About three-fourths of the cultivated area is irrigated. Government land revenue, £9967, at an average rate of 2s. 4½d. per arable acre. Of the 110 villages comprising the *parganá*, 54 are held under *tálukdárí*, 22 under *zamíndárí*, and 54 under *pattidárí* tenure. Kanhpurias own 76, and Musalmáns 19 villages. Population (1872) 84,443; (1881) 86,084, namely, males 41,996, and females 44,088. Five lines of road intersect the *parganá*, and a ferry is maintained across the Sái at Parshádepur. Exports—grain; imports—principally cotton and salt from Cawnpur.

Jais.—Town in Salon *tahsíl*, and head-quarters of Jais *parganá*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated on the Sultánpur and Rái Bareli road, 4 miles west of Nasirábád, and 16 south-west of Salon. Lat. 26° 15′ 55″ N., long. 81° 35′ 55″ E. Formerly called Udayanagar; and captured by the Muhammadans during the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd, who gave the place its present name. Picturesquely situated on rising ground, among groves of mango trees. Population (1872) 11,317; (1881) 11,044, namely, Hindus, 5749; Muhammadans, 5281; 'others,' 14. Area, 1581 acres. The town does not contain a single Hindu shrine. The Jains, however, have a temple dedicated to Parasnáth. Two large mosques, and a handsome *imámbára*, dating from 200 years ago. The roof, walls, and pillars of the latter are profusely ornamented with illuminated texts from the Kurán. *Garhá* cloth and muslin, manufactured by Muhammadan weavers, form the sole export. Saltpetre is also manufactured, but not to any considerable extent. Three considerable bi-weekly markets; Government Anglo-vernacular school.

Jaisalmer (*Jeysulmere*). — Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Western Rájputána States Agency of Central India. The State lies between lat. 26° 5′ and 28° 23′ N., and between long. 62° 29′ and 77° 15′ E. Its greatest length from east to west is 172 miles, and greatest breadth from north to south, 136 miles. It is in shape an irregular oval, the longest axis being 215 miles, lying north-east and south-west. The area of the State is 16,447 square miles;

and the population (1881) 108,143. It is bounded on the north by Baháwalpur; on the east by Bikáner (Bickaneer) and Jodhpur; on the south by Jodhpur and Sind; on the west by Khairpur and Sind.

Physical Aspects.—Jaisalmer is almost entirely a sandy waste, forming part of what is called 'the Great Indian Desert.' In the neighbourhood of Jaisalmer city, within a circuit of about 40 miles, the soil is very stony, and sandstone rocks, flat-topped and destitute of vegetation, occur; but with this exception, the aspect of the country is that of an interminable sea of sandhills, of all shapes and sizes, some rising to a height of 150 feet. The sandhills in the western portion of the State are covered with *phog* (Calligonum) bushes; in the eastern, with tufts of long grass. Nothing can well bear a more desolate appearance. The villages are far apart, and consist, as a rule, of a few circular huts or wigwams collected round a well of brackish water. Shifting sands are common, locally termed *draens.* Towards Tarnot and the west of Jaisalmer, there is an attempt at cultivation. In the east, near the large villages of Noh, Bikampur, and Birsilpur, fields have been formed in the valleys between the sandhills, where, when the season is favourable, the inhabitants grow *joár* and *bájra.* Water is scarce, and generally brackish. The average depth of the wells is about 250 feet. A well recently measured by an officer of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, at Choriá, 32 miles south-east of the capital, was 490 feet deep. Rain-water is used for drinking purposes as much as possible; but owing to a precarious rainfall, the supply stored up in the village ponds often fails. There are no perennial streams in Jaisalmer, and only one small river, called the Kakni. The Kakni rises near the villages of Kotri, Gohira, and Latabáná, and after flowing 28 miles, spreads over a large surface of flat ground, forming a lake called the Bhuj Jhíl. When there is an exceptionally large rainfall, the Kakni deviates from its usual course near the village of Káldhána, and, passing Lodhoroa, empties itself on a Rann, or flat salt marsh, 15 or 16 miles beyond Bhuj, and there dries up. The river Láthi-ka-nadí formerly entered Jaisalmer from Jodhpur State. Its bed has contained no water since 1825.

Climate.—The climate of Jaisalmer is dry and healthy. Epidemics are rare. Fever, spleen, skin disorders, guinea-worm, and small-pox are common diseases. The temperature is highest in May and June, when hot winds prevail with violence. As soon as rain falls, the weather becomes cool and pleasant. The coldest period is from the middle of December to the middle of February. The climate is liable to extremes of cold and heat, especially in the northern part of the State. No observations on the rainfall or temperature have been registered, but the rainfall is sometimes very slight; in 1875, for instance, there were only two rainy days. The country is, however, under the influence of

the south-west monsoon, and usually has a fair rainfall in June, July, and August.

History.—The majority of the inhabitants of Jaisalmer State are Yadu Bhati Rájputs, and claim a very ancient lineage. They take their name from an ancestor named Bhati, who was renowned as a warrior when the tribe were settled in the Punjab. Shortly after the settlement in the Punjab, the clan was driven southwards by the King of Ghazní across the Sutlej (Satlej), and found a refuge in the Indian Desert, which has been henceforth their home. It is probable that, like the Ráhtor Rájputs, the clan is descended from one of the Indo-Scythic tribes, who penetrated into Hindustán at a very remote period. The Bhatis, subsequent to their entry into the desert tract, engaged in constant struggles with the neighbouring tribes, whom they overcame. They established themselves successively at Tarnot, Deoráwal, and Jaisalmer. Deoráwal was founded by Deoráj, who is esteemed the real founder of the present ruling family. Deoráj was the first to take the title of Ráwal. He is said to have been born in 836. In 1156, Jaisal, the sixth in succession from Deoráj, founded the fort and city of Jaisalmer, and made it his capital. Jaisal was succeeded by several warlike princes, who were constantly engaged in raids and battles. But the taste for freebooting proved disastrous. On two occasions, namely in 1294, and shortly afterwards, the Bhatis so enraged the Emperor Alá-ud-dín, that the imperial army captured and sacked the fort and city of Jaisalmer, which for some time remained deserted. The reign of Ráwal Sabal Singh marks an epoch in Bhati history, for this prince, by acknowledging the supremacy of Sháh Jahán, was the first of his line to hold his dominions as a fief of the Delhi Empire.

Jaisalmer had now arrived at the height of its power; the territory extended north to the Sutlej, comprised the whole of Baháwalpur westward to the Indus, and to the east and south included many Districts subsequently annexed by the Ráhtors, and incorporated in Jodhpur and Bikáner. But from this time till the accession of Ráwal Mulráj in 1762, the fortunes of the State rapidly declined, and most of the outlying Provinces were wrested from Jaisalmer. Owing, however, to its isolated situation, the State escaped the ravages of the Maráthás. Ráwal Mulráj was the first chief of Jaisalmer with whom the British Government entered into political relations. In 1818, a treaty was concluded with Mulráj, by which the succession was guaranteed to his posterity; the chief was to be protected from serious invasions and dangers to his State, provided he was not the originator of the quarrel; and he was to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. No tribute was demanded. Since the death of Mulráj in 1820, there have been no stirring events in Jaisalmer. Mulráj was succeeded by his grandson Gaj Singh, who died in 1846.

Gaj Singh's widow adopted Ranjít Singh, nephew of Gaj Singh. On the death of Ranjit Singh in 1864, his younger brother, the present chief, Maháráwál Bairi Sál, who was born in 1848, came to the throne.

The ruler of Jaisalmer is styled Maháráwál, and holds his position as head of the Bhatis. The constitution of the State may be described as a tribal suzerainty in process of conversion to the feudal stage. The Bhatis are divided into numerous clans, which do not all spring from one brotherhood, as is the case with the Ráhtors. Many of the tribal chiefs, although acknowledging the Maháráwál as their suzerain, are to a great extent independent, and hold their estates revenue free. In some cases, the land is equally divided amongst all the sons; in others, the eldest son succeeds, and the younger brothers receive small portions as their inheritance. The Bhatis retain their Hindu usages, though with some degree of laxity, derived from their intercourse with Muhammadans on the northern and western frontiers. The Districts are governed by *hákíms* (magistrates), who have, however, but little real power on the estates of the Thákurs or Rájput chiefs.

Agriculture.—Throughout Jaisalmer State, only rain crops, such as *bájra*, *joár*, *moth*, *til*, etc., are grown; spring crops of wheat, barley, etc. are rare. The system of cultivation is rude. When the rainy season commences, the sandhills are ploughed by camels, and the seed is planted deep in the ground. After the seed has sprouted, a few showers, at long intervals, bring it to maturity. As the light-built desert camels move quickly, each householder is able to put a large extent of ground under crop. Owing to scanty rainfall, irrigation is almost unknown. The land revenue is paid in kind. Wherever wheat or gram is grown, the State takes from the cultivators from a fourth to a sixth of the produce; and of the rain crops, from a seventh to an eleventh. There are three different modes of collecting the State share of the out-turn. In the first mode, the crop is valued when standing; in the second, when cut, but before threshing; in the third, after it has been threshed out. In addition to the portion payable to the State, the cultivator has to settle the demands of the officials who look after the crops, and also of the grain storekeeper and the Maháráwál's water supplier. These demands generally average half as much again as the State demand. *Jágírdárs* take from their tenants of the cultivating class 4s. rent for as much land as can be cultivated with one pair of bullocks; other tenants are permitted to till as much ground as they like rent free, on condition of military service. There are 461 villages in Jaisalmer, of which 229 are fiscal, 71 are held by *jágírdárs*, 32 as charitable grants, 11 under title-deed, 109 in *bhúm* (under this tenure the holder has to perform paid service

for the State when called upon), and 9 for services to the State. Certain villages are sanctuaries. If a criminal escape to a sanctuary village, he is out of the jurisdiction of the Mahárawál.

Population.—Previous to 1881 no Census of the Jaisalmer State had been taken, and for general purposes the population was estimated at 72,000 people. The Census of 1881 returned the following information:—Total population, 108,143; area, 16,447 square miles; number of persons to the square mile, 6·57. This scanty population is scattered through 413 villages and 1 town, JAISALMER (10,965): total number of houses, 26,217; number of persons per house, 4·12. The religious division of the people is as follows:—Hindus, 57,484, or 53·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 28,032, or 25·9 per cent.; Jains, 1671, or 1·5 per cent.; 'others,' unspecified, 20,955; 1 person is returned as a Christian. As regards caste, the Hindus are thus divided—Bráhmans, 6055; Rájputs, 26,623; Mahájans, 7981; Játs, 403; other inferior castes, 16,422. Of the Muhammadans there are—Shaikhs, 273; Pathans, 258; 'others' not specified, 27,501.

Trade, etc.—There are no manufactures of any kind, beyond the making of blankets of sheep's wool, and the cutting of platters and cups from stone found in the country. Large herds of camels, horned cattle, sheep, and goats are kept. The principal trade of Jaisalmer is in wool, *ghí*, camels, cattle, and sheep, all of which find a ready market in Gujarát and Sind. Grain, sugar, foreign cloth, piece-goods, and other miscellaneous articles, form the chief imports. Neither the home manufactures nor the crops suffice for local wants.

Administration.—There is one civil court at Jaisalmer. Criminal cases are disposed of by the *díwán* (chief minister) at the capital, and in the interior by the *hákims* of the Districts. The Mahárawál alone has the power of life and death. There is no separate jail at Jaisalmer. Prisoners are confined in the fort, or in such places as the authorities choose. Education is at a low ebb in the State. Government schools are non-existent. Jain priests are the chief schoolmasters, but their teaching is very elementary. There are no made roads in the State. Camels are the chief means of locomotion.

The revenues of Jaisalmer, as compared with its area, are very small, amounting to about £10,000. In 1873–74, the income of the State amounted to £11,854; the expenditure to £15,911. No later figures are available. This low income is to be accounted for partly by the poverty of the country, and partly by the fact that the greater portion of the land belongs to feudal chiefs, related to the ruling family.

The Mahárawál has a force of 400 infantry, of whom many are mounted on camels, the animal ordinarily used for locomotion in these sandy tracts. The cavalry number about 500, including the

Feudal and Jághirdár Horse. Of the cavalry, about 40 are Sikhs, and the rest of the forces, both infantry and cavalry, are natives of Rájputána or of the bordering Districts of Sind. The men are armed chiefly with the ordinary matchlock, sword, shield, or spear of the country, but have no drill or discipline. They constitute an efficient police. The total number of serviceable guns is 12, served by 20 gunners.

Jaisalmer (*Jeysulmere*).—Chief town and capital of the Native State of Jaisalmer, Rájputána, Central India. Jaisalmer is situated in a broad belt of low rocky ridges. Lat. 26° 55′ N., long. 70° 57′ E. The town stands about 800 feet above the level of the sea. It was founded in the year 1156 by Ráwal Jaisal. The buildings are chiefly of yellow sandstone. At a short distance, the colour of the walls gives an appearance of mud; on closer inspection, the excellent quality of the stone attracts attention, not only for its durability, but for its fine grain, affording great scope to the architect. This has been thoroughly appreciated by the wealthy inhabitants, for in few places is found such exquisite carving in stone as that which decorates the houses of some of the opulent Oswál and Palliwál merchants in Jaisalmer. The fort caps a small hill, which overlooks the town. Its elevation is estimated at 250 feet, and its length at about 350 yards. The walls, which afford a double line of defence, are about 25 feet in height, and of great strength, being constructed with large blocks of the same sandstone as that of which the city is built. The plan of the fortification is peculiar. It is apparently a succession of towers or circular bastions, the connecting curtains being also curved. Huge round boulders lie in close array along the battlements, ready for offensive purposes in case of assault. The view from the ramparts is not attractive. The foreground presents a succession of sterile rock-bound ridges, barely clad with stunted bushes, whilst on the horizon low undulations mark the commencement of the Indian Desert. The Maháráwál's palace surmounts the main entrance of the fort. The interior is ill-arranged, and frittered away in numberless small apartments. Water is obtained from three good wells within the palace. The Jain temples in the fort are remarkable for their fine stone carving. The oldest temple was built in 1371. A large annual fair is held within 10 miles of the city.

Jaisinghnagar.—Village in Ságar *tahsíl*, Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 23° 38′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E.; 21 miles south-west of Ságar town. Population (1881) 2742, namely, Hindus, 1766; Kabírpanthís, 449; Jains, 283; Muhammadans, 243; aboriginal, 1. Founded about 1690 by Rájá Jai Singh, the ruler of Old Ságar, who built a fort, still remaining, to protect the country from the raids of petty chiefs. At the cession of Ságar (Saugor) to the British in 1818, this tract was included; and in 1826 it was assigned as a residence for Rukmá Báí, one of the widows of Apá

Sáhib. Bi-weekly market, with trade in grain, cloth, and provisions; village school for boys. Police station; post-office.

Jaitak.—Hill fortress in Sirmúr (Sarmor) State, Punjab, crowning a steep ridge of slate, which rises above the Khiárda Dún. Lat. 30° 36′ N., long. 77° 24′ E. During the war in 1814, the Gúrkhas occupied this position with a garrison of 2200 men. They were attacked by two British detachments, 1700 strong, but without success; and it was not until after a tedious series of operations that the fort was finally captured in the following year. Elevation above sea-level, 4854 feet.

Jaitápur.—Seaport in the Rájápur Sub-division of Ratnágiri District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 37′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 24′ 30″ E.; average annual value of trade for five years ending 1881–82, £210,575, namely, exports, £110,905; imports, £99,670. The population is reckoned as part of the population of Rájápur, and is about 2000—mostly Muhammadan. The town, 4 miles from the entrance of the Rájápur river, is a place of call for coasting steamers, which stop tri-weekly for passengers going to and from Rájápur. The port is said to be well sheltered from all winds. It has a custom house, post-office, and vernacular school. Formerly one of the chief ports of the Konkán: then known as Cetapur, Rájápur, or Suitapur. The Jaitápur lighthouse is placed on the mainland at the southern point of the Rájápur Hill. Height of lantern above the sea, 99 feet; in clear weather its light is seen from a distance of 9 miles.

Jaitpur.—Decayed town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of a Native State. Lat. 25° 15′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 36′ 25″ E. Population (1872) 5159; (1881) 5440, namely, Hindus, 4830, and Muhammadans, 610. Area of town site, 172 acres. Picturesquely situated on the banks of the Bela Tál, 65 miles south-west of Hamírpur. Probably founded in the early part of the 18th century by Jagatráj, son of the famous Bundela Rájá, Chhatar Sál, who built the large fort still in existence. His descendants held the town and surrounding principality until a period subsequent to the British conquest of Bundelkhand; but on the occasion of our reverses at Kábul in 1842, Rájá Parichat broke into rebellion, and, being captured, died a pensioner at Cawnpur, while his territories reverted to the British Government. His widow still resides at Naugáon, and receives a pension of £200 per annum. Khet Singh, a member of Rájá Parichat's family, was put in his place; but having died without legitimate issue, the State, already placed temporarily in charge of British officers on account of financial embarrassments, was formally annexed. The town resembles a collection of separate villages, fully 2 miles in length, but very narrow. Handsome temple; two forts, one of which could contain almost the whole population; police outpost; village school. Small trade in grain; manufacture and dyeing of

country cloth. The Bela Tál, a tank or lake, dammed up with solid masonry by the Chandel rulers of Mahobá in the 9th century, extends for 5 miles in circumference, but is now very shallow, the embankment having burst in 1869. Two canals, deriving their supply from the tank, irrigated an area of 526 acres in 1881–82. For police and conservancy purposes a small house-tax is raised under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Jájamau.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 1 mile north of the Ganges, and 22 north-west of Unao town. Lat. 26° 56′ N., and long. 80° 14′ E. Founded in the reign of Aurangzeb by Jáji Singh Chandel, ancestor of the present *tálukdár*. Population (1881) 859, exclusively Hindus.

Jajhoti.—Ancient name of BANDELKHAND.

Jájmau.—Head-quarters *tahsíl* of Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the banks of the Ganges, which forms its north-eastern boundary, and containing the city of Cawnpur. It is traversed throughout its length by the Cawnpur branch of the Lower Ganges Canal. The Rind river forms the southern boundary of the *tahsíl*, and the Pándu flows through its centre. The soil is largely cut up by ravines. Area, 269 square miles, of which 121 are cultivated. Population (1872), including the city of Cawnpur, 267,286; (1881) 289,333, namely, males 159,063, and females 130,270. Increase of population during the nine years, 22,047, or 8·2 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 244,872; Muhammadans, 41,102; Jains, 114; 'others' (mainly European troops forming the garrison of Cawnpur), 3245. Of the 220 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 144 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £26,320; total Government revenue, £29,485; rental paid by cultivators, £43,997; incidence of Government revenue, 3s. 7d. per acre.

Jájmau.—Town in Jájmau *tahsíl* in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Ganges. Lat. 26° 26′ N.; long. 80° 28′ E.; 6 miles south-east of Cawnpur city by land and 5 by water. Now an unimportant village, but once of some note. It was anciently styled Siddhpuri, and still contains a landing-stage and temples dedicated to Siddheswar and Siddha Deví. The high mound overhanging the river is known as the fort of Rájá Jiját Chandrabansi, whom the Chandels claim as their ancestor. Disgusted at the failure of a sacrifice made for a special purpose, he made over the fort, with its appanage of 17 villages, to a man of the sweeper caste. South of the fort rises the tomb of Makhdúm Sháh, built about 600 years ago; and on the castle mound itself stands a mosque dating [illegible] the 17th century. The residents of this and the surro[illegible] [illegible]lebrate [illegible]e *holi* festival five days after the usual date.

on the *holi* and four following days, a fierce battle was raging between the Muhammadans and the Hindu Rájá; and in honour of the victory then gained, the Hindus have ever since kept this holiday on the same date as that on which they were forced to keep it in that year.

Jájpur.—Sub-division of Cuttack District, Bengal. Area, 1104 square miles; number of villages, 3989; houses, 91,181. Population (1872) 428,517; (1881) 499,498, namely, males 240,341, and females 259,157. Total increase during the nine years ending 1881, 70,981, or 16·56 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881 —Hindus, 487,748; Muhammadans, 11,248; Christians, 105; aboriginal tribes, 28; 'others,' 369. Density of population, 452 per square mile; villages per square mile, 3·61; persons per village, 125; houses per square mile, 86; inmates per house, 5·5. This Sub-division comprises the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Jájpur and Dharmsálá. One magisterial and 1 civil revenue court in 1883; regular police, 82 men; village watch, 1466 men.

Jájpur.—Town, municipality, and head-quarters of Jájpur Subdivision, Cuttack District, Bengal; on the right bank of the Baitaraní river, in lat. 20° 50′ 45″ N., long. 86° 22′ 56″ E. Population (1872) 10,753; (1882) 11,233, namely, Hindus, 10,611; Muhammadans, 616; and 'others,' 6. Area of town site, 2891 acres. Gross municipal revenue (1881–82), £279; rate of taxation, 5½d. per head of population. The town contains the usual subdivisional and public buildings; charitable dispensary; Government-aided Anglo-vernacular school, etc. It was the chief town of the Province under the Kesari dynasty until the 11th century, when it was superseded by Cuttack, the modern capital. Jájpur is celebrated for its settlements of Bráhman Sivaite priests, and as the head-quarters of one of the four regions of pilgrimage into which Orissa is divided, viz. that sacred to Parvatí, the wife of the All-Destroyer. In Jájpur are numerous ruins of Sivaite temples, sculptures, etc. For a description of these remains, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, xviii. pp. 85–89 (quoted from *Orissa*). In the 16th century, this town was the scene of the struggle between Musalmán and Hindu power, from which it emerged in ruins. However, it still ranks as the fifth town of Orissa, and derives much wealth from its yearly fair in honour of Baruní, 'Queen of the Waters,' on which occasion crowds of pilgrims flock to bathe in the holy Baitaraní, the Styx of Hindu mythology.

Jájpur.—Town in Udaipur (Oodeypore) State, Rájputána, Central India. Lat. 25° 38′ N., long. 75° 19′ E.; lies 63 miles south-east of Nasírábád (Nusseerábád), and 278 north-west of Ságar (Saugor). Good water-supply; large *bázár*. A fort of considerable strength, situated on an isolated peak, commands the pass leading from Bundí (Boondee) into Udaipur.

Jákhan.—Petty State in Jhálawár Division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lies 4 miles east of Limbdi railway station. Population, 703 in 1881. It consists of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. The revenue is estimated at £157; and tribute of £24, 4s. is paid to the British Government, and of £4, 12s. to Junágarh.

Jakháu.—Seaport in the Native State of Cutch (Kachh), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 14′ 30″ N., long. 68° 45′ E.; lies 64 miles south-west of Bhuj. Population (1872) 5145; (1881) 4930, namely, Hindus, 1843; Muhammadans, 2094; Jains, 993. The town of Jakháu is on the south-west coast of Cutch, between 3 and 4 miles inland, in a plain bare of trees but yielding abundant crops. The landing-place is at Godia creek, 5 miles from the sea. Godia creek, dry at low-water, has a depth of from 8 to 12 feet at full tide. At springs, boats of from 20 to 25 tons burden can pass up. There is a stretch of backwater from the Indus to the Godia creek, known as Bagda, navigable for craft of 8 and 10 tons all the year round. Jakháu carries on a large trade with Bombay, exporting grain and importing piece-goods, groceries, timber, sugar, oil, and dates.

Jakkatála.—Military station in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras.—*See* WELLINGTON.

Jako.—Mountain peak in Simla District, Punjab, overhanging the station of Simla. Lat. 31° 5′ N., long. 77° 15′ E. The ridge, upon which stands the sanitarium and summer capital, culminates eastward in this noble height, 8000 feet above sea-level, and 1000 feet above the general elevation of the houses. Woods of *deodár*, pine, oak, and rhododendron clothe its sides and summit. Its circuit, by a tolerably level road, about 1000 feet below the peak, measures just 5 miles. The houses of Simla Station cluster most thickly upon the flanks of Jako and two neighbouring hills.

Jalálábád.—District in the Kábul Province, Afghánistán; lies north and south of the Kábul river. The District of Jalálábád is about 80 miles long from east to west, and, on an average, 35 miles broad from north to south. To the east it extends to the western mountains of the Kháibar and Bázár. On the south it is bounded by the Safed Koh range. On the west the boundary is a lofty spur from the Safed Koh, called Karkacha, between the valleys of Gandamak and Jagdalak. North of the Kábul river the surface of the District is diversified by spurs of the Safed Koh; south of the river it is an irregular undulating tract, enclosing the small plains of Jalálábád, Chárdeh, Peshbolák, Batikot, and others, covered with low, bare, and stony hills, and intersected by numerous streams from the Safed Koh. The district is entirely surrounded by hills, on one of which Noah's Ark is fabled to have rested. Two main roads traverse the District from east to

west, the one, after a certain portion of its course, joining the other at Gandamak.

Jalálábád is divided for revenue purposes into eight sub-divisions. The principle of revenue administration is that Government takes one-third of the gross produce of the soil. The inhabitants of the District belong to many races and tribes, a small proportion of Hindus living as traders in every large village. The language of this part of the country is Pushtú, but many tribes use Persian, and some have dialects peculiar to themselves. Certain tribes, the Kúchís in especial, among whom are a percentage of Arabs, are migratory, and move to the region about Kábul as the hot weather approaches. The climate of the Jalálábád District bears a general resemblance to that of Peshávar, but for two months the heat in the plains is excessive. Rain falls abundantly, the showers of the *bád-i-barsát* corresponding to the commencement of the rainy season in India. Fevers and small-pox are common; vaccination, except by the native method of inoculation, is unknown; eye diseases develop in the hot weather. During the winter, shocks of earthquake are frequent.

Agriculture.—There are no towns of importance in the District, and only the low-lying parts in addition to the banks of the streams are cultivated. In secluded valleys the cultivation of fruit is engaged in, and travellers describe the blending together of orchard, garden, and field. The *rabi*, or spring harvest, when the Safed Koh has sent down its supply of water from the melted snows, comprises large crops of wheat, barley, peas, opium, mustard, and linseed. The *kharif*, or autumn harvest, is of cotton, *joár*, rice, and *bájra*. Melons, cucumbers, pumpkins, and turnips are also grown. Wheat and *joár* are the staple food of the people. In a small portion of the District the ancient custom of *vesh*, or redistribution of all the lands of the community at stated intervals, is found to exist.

Administration.—The civil administration of the District is entrusted to a governor, or *hákim*, whose authority, however, is not exercised over the military commanders appointed by the Kábul Darbár. The *hákim* has a nominal salary, but carries on the revenue system by farming the taxes, levying fines, and by miscellaneous exaction. There is no regular administration of justice; civil disputes are referred to a Muhammadan Mullá or Kází by mutual consent.

The name Nangnahár is applied to the southern portion of Jalálábád District, including the district of Laghmán. Laghmán, properly Lamghán, is the seat of the ancient *Lampagae*. The name is almost certainly not connected with that of the patriarch Lamech, as the Musalmáns assert, but is a distortion of the ancient Indian name *Nagarahára*, borne by a city in the Jalálábád plain long before the time of Islám, and believed to have been the *Nagara* or *Dionysopolis* of

Ptolemy. Many *topes* and other Buddhist traces exist in the Laghmán valley, but there are no buildings of any size intact.

History.—Jalálábád city was founded in 1570 by Akbar the Great on his way back from Kábul to India. The fort was built in 1638 in the time of Sháh Jahán. The annals of the District date from A.D. 977, and are mainly concerned with engagements that occurred in its valleys during the march of Afghán rulers towards Hindustán; but the modern history of the town of Jalálábád dates from 1834. In that year, after the Bárukzái Kháns had gained ascendancy over the Sáduzaí monarchs, Nawáb Zamán Khán, nephew of Azím Khán, was placed in the government of Nangnahár, and retained it peaceably until the Amír of Afghánistán, Dost Muhammad, presented himself with an army and a claim for revenue. The claim was arranged, and the Amír withdrew. The Nawáb set about the fortification of the town, and was busily engaged in the work when the Amír again appeared. The Nawáb resisted, but the town was seized and sacked. The Amír placed two of his brothers successively in the governorship.

Jalálábád has twice been occupied by British troops. First in the course of the Afghán war of 1839–42, when Sir Robert Sale, in command of the 'illustrious garrison,' stoutly held out against the Afghán rebel leader, Muhammad Akbar Khán, from November 1841 to April 1842, until relieved by General Pollock. The siege was memorable for the gallantry of its defenders. The *enceinte* of the town was over 2100 yards in extent, out of all proportion to the powers of the besieged; it was protected by no parapet except for a few hundred yards, and for that distance by one only 2 feet high; the ramparts were ruins over which roads led into the country; inside the walls the population was disaffected; outside, 5000 insurgents occupied the many ruined tombs, mosques, forts, walls, and gardens from which a fire could be opened at 20 or 30 yards on those inside the city. The British forces at their entrance had only provisions for two days, and with a small garrison were compelled to make constant sallies. By February 1842 the town had been rendered defensible, but in that month an earthquake rendered the previous work ineffectual. The 'illustrious garrison,' however, held out. On the 7th April, an attack was made upon the enemy, which had the effect of raising the blockade; and a week afterwards General Pollock marched in to the relief. Earlier in the same year (1842), Jalálábád was reached by Dr. Brydon, the sole survivor of General Elphinstone's army. The second occasion on which Jalálábád was occupied by British troops was during the Afghán war of 1879–80. The fort, or Bala Hissar, was put into thorough repair, and quarters and hospitals were built. While the campaign lasted, the town was an *entrepôt* for all kinds of military stores, and the head-quarters of the Kháibar division.

Jalálábád.—Town in Jalálábád District, Afghánistán; lies at a

height of 1946 feet, in the midst of a cultivated plain on the south of the Kábul river. Lat. 34° 24′ N., long. 70° 26′ E. Jalálábád is by road 100 miles from Kábul, and 91 from Peshávar. Between it and Peshávar intervene the Kháibar and other adjoining passes; between it and Kábul, the passes of Jagdalak, Khurd-Kábul, etc. In 1840, the town, though its walls had an extent of 2100 yards, contained only 300 houses, and a permanent population of 2000. The walls formed an irregular quadrilateral in a ruinous state, surrounded on all sides by buildings, gardens, the remains of the ancient walls, etc., affording abundant cover to an assailant. According to Burnes, Jalálábád is one of the filthiest towns in the East. It is advantageously situated for trade, as, besides being on the high-road between Peshávar and Kábul, roads lead from it to Derbend, Kashmír, Ghazní, Bámián, and Yárkand.

Jalálábád.—*Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 6 miles south-east of* Mallánwán town. Population (1881) 1857, chiefly Kanaujia Bráhmans, residing in 313 mud houses. Bi-weekly market.

Jalálábád.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 37′ N., long. 77° 28′ 45″ E. Situated near the little river Krishni, 21 miles north-west of Muzaffarnagar town, on the road from Delhi to Saháranpur. Population (1872) 6904; (1881) 6592, namely, Hindus, 3065; Jains, 44; and Muhammadans, 3483, the latter chiefly Patháns. Area of town site, 155 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. Large market on Sundays and Fridays. The celebrated fort of Ghausgarh, built by the Rohillá leader Najíb Khán, lay at a short distance from the town. Jalálábád was often sacked by the Maráthás during the rule of Zábita Khán, and one member of that race still holds revenue-free grants in the neighbourhood. The Sikhs afterwards harried the country; and nothing now remains of the site of Ghausgarh except mud walls, scattered bricks, a well 15 feet in diameter, and the ruins of a mosque. The town still possesses a considerable trade in local produce, and a channel of the Eastern Jumna Canal irrigates the surrounding country. The Patháns of Jalálábád remained quiet during the Mutiny of 1857, and one of their principal leaders did good service as *tahsildár* of Thána Bahwán after its capture.

Jalálábád.—Southern *tahsíl* of Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the north bank of the Ganges, and also intersected by the Rámgangá and Sot rivers and other minor streams. The *tahsíl* includes three distinct tracts of soil—(1) The *bhur* or sandy tract in the extreme east, with an area of about 40 square miles, producing poor crops of wheat as the spring, and *bájra* as the autumn harvest. (2) The *tarái* tract in the centre, including the valleys of the Rámgangá and Bahgul, the soil of which consists of a fine alluvial

deposit, yielding rich crops of wheat with little labour, and without the necessity of irrigation; area, 128 square miles. (3) The *bankati* tract, extending from the valley of the Rámgangá to the Ganges, with an area of nearly 140 square miles, consisting of a hard clay soil, with a large extent of *dhák* jungle and grass land intersected by numerous flood-watercourses draining into the Sot river. Cultivation in this tract is very laborious, and frequent and copious irrigation is necessary to prevent the soil from hardening and cracking into wide fissures. When properly cared for, however, it produces very good wheat and millet. Two metalled and two unmetalled roads intersect the *tahsíl*, besides the ordinary cross country cart roads. The *bankati* tract, however, is badly off for roads, and those which exist are difficult to traverse in the cold weather, and are utterly impracticable during the rains, owing to the numerous watercourses and flood-channels. Water communication for large boats is afforded by the Ganges and Rámgangá rivers, along which a considerable traffic is carried on. The total area of the *tahsíl* in 1881-82 was 329·1 square miles, of which 183·6 square miles were returned as under cultivation, 100 square miles as cultivable, and 45·5 square miles as uncultivable waste. Population (1872) 165,763; (1881) 145,915, namely, males 79,990, and females 65,925, showing a decrease of 19,848, or 11·9 per cent., during the nine years. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 133,435; Muhammadans, 12,477; and 'others,' 3. Out of 356 inhabited villages, 268 contained less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue (1881-82), £21,132; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £23,688; rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £47,158. The *tahsíl* contains 2 criminal courts, the civil jurisdiction being included with that of the Tílhar *munsifi*. Strength of regular police, 63 officers and men, besides a rural police force of *chaukídárs*.

Jalálábád.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Jalálábád *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 27° 43′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 41′ 53″ E., on the plain 2 miles north of the Rámgangá river and 19 miles south of Sháhjahánpur city. Population (1872) 7127; (1881) 8025, namely, Hindus, 4077; Muhammadans, 3945; and 'others,' 3. Area of town site, 117 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. An almost purely agricultural town. Boats from Cawnpur ascend the Rámgangá as far as Kola Ghát, opposite this town, where they receive cargoes of wheat and other food-stuffs. Bi-weekly markets are held on Mondays and Thursdays, but the trade of the place has much fallen off of late years, traffic having been diverted by the opening of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. The public buildings consist of the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices, police station, post-office, and Anglo-

vernacular school. The town is described as having a miserable appearance; the houses are nearly all mud-built, the *bázár* small, the shops few, and the roadway unmetalled.

Jaláli.—Town in Koil *tahsíl*, Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 51′ 35″ N., long. 78° 17′ 35″ E.; 14½ miles south-east of Alígarh town, on the route from Alígarh to Budáun. Population (1881) 4939, namely, 2831 Hindus, and 2108 Muhammadans. Area, 44 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856. The town stands on a high site, between two raised distributaries of the Ganges Canal, but in an isolated position, and with no good roads. The most noteworthy inhabitants are the Sayyids, Shiás by sect, a large and influential body, who are regarded as the leaders of their sect in the Upper Doáb. They are the descendants of one Kamál-ud-dín, who settled in the town about 1295 A.D., in the reign of Alá-ud-dín. During the reign of Sháh Jahán, this Sayyid family became sufficiently powerful to expel the old Pathán landholders, and thus obtained the full proprietary rights in the town which they still possess. 'These rights,' says the Settlement Officer, 'have since become so sub-divided that the individual shares are scarcely worth retaining. The reputation of the family is due to their having given so many useful subordinate officers to the British Government. Among its co-sharers, the village can boast of an exceptionally numerous body of men, who have obtained, or are now obtaining, distinction in both the military and civil services.' The town contains upwards of eighty mosques, of which thirty are of good size, one being a handsome building. The streets are narrow, tortuous, and unmetalled. There is no regular *bázár*, and no trade. The town is an essentially agricultural one, inhabited by landholders and cultivators. Camping ground half a mile from the town.

Jalálkherá.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 23′ N., long. 78° 27′ E.; about 14 miles west of Kátol, near the junction of the Jám with the Wardhá. Population (1881) 897, chiefly cultivators. According to tradition, the place once contained 30,000 inhabitants, but was ruined by the ravages of a band of Patháns. The remains of a large fort, said to be of Gaulí origin, still exist; and for 2 square miles around the village may be found traces of the old town. Probably Jalálkherá once formed a single large city, with Amner on the Berár side of the river.

Jalálpur.—Sub-division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency. On the north the Sub-division is separated by the Purna river from Baroda territories; on the east it is bounded by the Baroda Sub-division of Mahuwa; on the south by the river Ambika; on the west by the Arabian Sea. It forms a tract about 20 miles long and 16 broad. The area is returned at 189 square miles. Population (1881) 74,016;

average density, 392 persons per square mile. Since 1872, the population has increased by 3904. In 1881 Hindus numbered 63,608, or 86 per cent. of the total; Muhammadans, 5428; 'others,' 4980. According to the statistics of 1873-74 (the most recent available), 94·7 per cent. of the cultivable land was then under cultivation. There are 91 villages in the Sub-division; houses, 14,680. The Sub-division of Jalálpur is a level plain of deep alluvial soil, sloping towards the sea, where it ends in a salt marsh. Along the coast-line low sand-hills appear at intervals. With the exception of the salt lands near the coast, the Sub-division is rich, highly cultivated, and well supplied with water, groves of fruit trees, and valuable timber. The villages are large and prosperous. Besides the salt marsh on the coast, there are extensive salt marshes along the banks of the Purna and Ambika rivers, which flow through the Sub-division. In 1875, of the whole 31,360 acres of salt marsh, more than half (16,794) were undergoing reclamation. The reclaimed land has been made to yield a small return of rice. In 1873-74, 62 per cent. of the cultivable land was under grain. *Joár*, *bájra*, and rice are the staple crops. Miscellaneous crops are pulses, gram, oil-seeds, sugar-cane, and plantain. The climate is mild and healthy throughout the year. Average rainfall, 54 inches. The land revenue (1881) was £33,795. The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts, with 1 police station (*thána*); strength of regular police, 22 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 720.

Jalálpur.—*Tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the river Betwá, now known as MUSKARA (*q.v.*).

Jalálpur.—Town and municipality in Gujrát *tahsíl* and District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 21′ 35″ N., long. 74° 15′ E.; 8 miles north-east of Gujrát town. Population (1868) 15,526; (1881) 12,839, namely, Muhammadans, 9496; Hindus, 3331; and Sikhs, 12. Number of houses, 2733. Municipal revenue (1882-83), £787, derived from octroi, or an average of 1s. 2⅝d. per head. Jalálpur is situated in an open and highly-cultivated country, at the junction of cross roads leading to Siálkot, Jehlam, Jamu, and Gujrát. It has a good *bázár* and a large number of well-built houses. It is the second principal town in Gujrát District, and carries on a considerable shawl manufacture, the work of a Kashmíri colony. The manufacture, however, has greatly declined since the Franco-Prussian war, owing to the French demand for these goods having fallen off. The town contains a well-attended Government school, a town hall, commodious *sarái* with accommodation for European travellers, police station, and dispensary.

Jalálpur.—Village and municipality in Lodhrán *tahsíl*, Multán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 30′ 15″ N., long. 71° 16′ E.; lying in the tongue of land between the Sutlej and the Trimáb, twelve miles

from their confluence. Population (1881) 3875, namely, Muhammadans, 2257; Hindus, 1613; and Sikhs, 5. Number of houses, 622. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £240, or 1s. 2½d. per head of population. The town consists of a collection of brick houses, surrounded by an embankment to protect them from river inundation. A fine domed building, covered with blue glazed tiles, marks the tomb of a saint, Sayyid Sultán Ahmad, who bears to this day a great reputation for casting evil spirits out of possessed persons. The trade of the town has decayed since the opening of the Indus Valley Railway. Manufacture of paper of excellent quality. The public buildings consist of a municipal office, police station, school-house, and *sarái* (native inn).

Jalálpur.—Ancient ruined town in Jehlam (Jhelum) *tahsíl* of Jehlam District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 32° 39′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 27′ E., close to the right bank of the Jehlam river. Head-quarters of a subordinate police jurisdiction. The village has been identified by General Cunningham with the site of the ancient Bucephala, built by Alexander the Great in memory of his famous charger, which was killed in the battle with Porus at the crossing of the Jehlam. Remains of ancient walls still crown the summit of the hills, which rise to a height of 1000 feet above the village. Coins found among the ruins date back to the period of the Græco-Bactrian kings. Even in the time of Akbar, the town covered a site four times as large as that which it now occupies; but since the foundation of Pind Dádan Khán, and the shifting of the river channel 2 miles eastward, it has undergone a constant decay. Jalálpur is now nothing more than a small agricultural village, of no commercial or other importance, apart from the interest attaching to its antiquarian remains.

Jalálpur-Dehi.—Town in Dalmau *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; 8 miles east of Dalmau, and 18 south-east of Rái Bareli town. Lat. 26° 2′ N., long. 81° 62′ E. Founded close to the site of an ancient and ruined town, named Dehi, by one Jalál-ud-dín, upon whom it was conferred as a *jágír* by Ibráhím Sharki of Jaunpur. Population (1881), Hindus, 1116; Muhammadans, 669; total, 1885, residing in 362 houses. Government vernacular school. A bi-weekly market is held at a little distance from the village.

Jalálpur-Nahvi.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; 52 miles from Faizábád town. Lat. 26° 37′ 10″ N., long. 82° 10′ 30″ E. Pleasantly situated on the banks of the Tons river, which here runs in a winding channel, between high and precipitous banks. Population (1881), Muhammadans, 3792; Hindus, 2446; 'others,' 2; total, 6240. Area of town site, 291 acres. A flourishing weaving town. An *imámbára* outside the town was built about a century ago, at a cost of £400, by contributions from the weaving community, each man

contributing a quarter of a piece for each piece of cloth wrought by him. The circumstance was brought to the notice of the King of Oudh, who highly commended the weavers for their piety and liberality, and ordered them to continue the subscription, but to pay the proceeds into the royal treasury as a contribution to himself.

Jálandhar (*Jullundur*).—A Division or Commissionership in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, comprising the three Districts of Jalandhar, Hoshiarpur, and Kangra, each of which see separately. Lat. 30° 56′ 30″ to 32° 59′ N., long. 75° 6′ 30″ to 77° 49′ 15″ E. Area of Jálandhar Division, 12,571 square miles, with 31 towns and 3951 villages; number of houses, 507,838, of which 384,189 are occupied and 123,649 unoccupied. Total population (1881) 2,421,781, namely, males 1,293,828, and females 1,127,953; proportion of males in total population, 53·4 per cent.; number of families, 538,226. Average density of population, 193 per square mile; persons per town or village, 608; persons per occupied house, 6·3.

As regards religion, Hindus numbered 1,576,112, or 65·08 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 687,942, or 28·40 per cent.; Sikhs, 150,842, or 6·23 per cent.; Buddhists, 2860; Jains, 1942; Christians, 2056; Pársís, 8; and 'others,' 19. Classified ethnically, apart from religion, the population consists of the following tribes and castes, including Hindus, Muhammadans, Sikhs, etc.:—Játs, 320,618; Rájputs, 238,009; Chamárs, 231,041; Bráhmans, 217,828; Arains, 163,191; Gújars, 95,156; and Tarkhans, 70,551. The exclusively Muhammadan classes, by race as apart from religion, includes—Patháns, 13,417; Shaikhs, 18,351; Sayyids, 11,126; and Mughals, 3351. The urban population in 31 towns and municipalities is returned at 235,676, or 9·7 per cent. of the entire population of the Division. Rural population, 2,186,105, or 90·3 per cent. Of the 3982 towns and villages, 2556 are returned as containing less than five hundred inhabitants; 850 from five hundred to a thousand; 407 from one to two thousand; 79 from two to three thousand; 56 from three to five thousand; 28 from five to ten thousand; and 6 over ten thousand. The adult male population is thus returned according to occupation—(1) Professional class, 33,004; (2) domestic and menial class, 29,326; (3) commercial class, 14,012; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 438,190; (5) industrial class, 53,496; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 53,497; (7) unspecified, 43,977.

Of a total assessed area of 7,405,942 acres in 1878–79, as shown in the last quinquennial return of agricultural statistics, 2,058,796 acres were under cultivation, of which 415,573 acres were artificially irrigated by private irrigation. Of the remaining or uncultivated area, 3157 acres were returned as grazing land, 315,184 acres as cultivable but not under cultivation, and 5,028,805 acres as

uncultivable waste, nearly nine-tenths of which is included in the mountainous District of Kángra. The annual average area under crops for the five years 1877–78 to 1881–82, was 2,124,777 acres, the area under the principal crops being—Wheat, 779,969 acres; Indian corn, 332,303 acres; rice, 177,913 acres; barley, 116,621 acres; *joár*, 112,645 acres; gram, 112,381 acres; *moth*, 75,024 acres; sugar-cane, 92,146 acres; cotton, 55,597 acres; vegetables, 14,192 acres; tobacco, 8053 acres; indigo, 2348 acres; and poppy, 2026 acres.

The total revenue in 1881–82, excluding canals, forests, salt, assessed taxes, fees, and cesses, was £430,457, made up as follows:—Land revenue, fixed and fluctuating, £312,397; tribute, £23,100; stamps, £47,337; excise, £10,815; local rates, £26,808. The Division is under the general control of the Commissioner of Jálandhar, assisted by a Judicial Commissioner. The administrative staff for the various Districts comprises 3 Deputy Commissioners, each with a Judicial Assistant, 3 Assistant Commissioners, 8 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 1 cantonment magistrate, 3 honorary magistrates, 13 *tahsíldárs*, and 13 *munsifs*, besides subordinate officials. For further details, see separate District articles on JALANDHAR, HOSHIARPUR, and KANGRA.

Jálandhar (*Jullundur*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 56′ 30″ and 31° 37′ N. lat., and between 75° 6′ 30″ and 77° 49′ 15″ E. long. Jálandhar forms the southernmost District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north-east by the District of Hoshiárpur; on the north-west by the Native State of Kapúrthala; and on the south by the Sutlej (Satlaj), which separates it from Ludhiáná and Hoshiárpur Districts. Jálandhar stands thirtieth in order of area, and eighth in order of population, among the thirty-two Districts of the Province, comprising 1·24 per cent. of the total area, 4·19 per cent. of the total population, and 5·62 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The District is divided into four *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions, of which the Jálandhar *tahsíl* comprises the northern portion, and Nawashahr, Phillaur, and Nakodár the southern portion, running in that order from east to west. Area, 1322 square miles; population (1881) 789,555 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of Jálandhar.

Physical Aspects.—The blunt triangular tongue of land, enclosed by the confluent streams of the Sutlej (Satlaj) and the Beas (Biás), bears the general name of the Jálandhar or Bist Doáb. Its submontane portion belongs to Hoshiárpur; the remainder is divided between the Native State of Kapúrthala and the British District of Jálandhar. Below the hills, the whole Doáb consists of one unbroken alluvial expanse, whose fertility extends without a single break from river to river. The Sikhs

regarded it as the richest region in the Punjab plains; for although other tracts may be found of equal fruitfulness, in no other Doáb does the cultivated land stretch so far back from the river banks. The entire District lies within the zone of rich cultivable soil, the detritus of the mountain system, which skirts the foot of the Himálayas. At places, a few acres are covered with a sandy layer; but, except in these rare spots, one vast sheet of luxuriant and diverse vegetation spreads over the plain from end to end. Neither rock nor stone crops out in any part, nor does any eminence occur deserving the name of a hill. The highest point in the plateau, at Ráhon, near the eastern corner of the District, has an elevation of 1012 feet above sea-level. Somewhat farther to the west, at the little town of Hiún, the general height sinks to 969 feet; and from this point westward the surface gradually falls away toward the Beas valley.

A well-defined bank marks the bed of the Sutlej on the Jálandhar side, below which stretches a tract of varying width, the *bet* or *khádar*, parts of which are annually fertilized by the deposit of silt during the inundations, and produce rich crops after their subsidence. The river contains in winter about 15 feet of water in its deepest parts, and it is navigable at all seasons for large flat-bottomed country boats of about 8 tons burden. The main channel shifts from year to year through the wide bed, often forming new islands by slight changes in its course. The present stream runs at an average distance of 6 miles from the high bank. Opposite Phillaur, the Sutlej is crossed by a bridge of the Punjab and Delhi Railway. During the cold weather, a bridge of boats is maintained across the river for the traffic of the Grand Trunk Road. The torrents from the Siwálik Hills in Hoshiárpur District eventually unite in two main streams, the White (or east) and the Black (or west) Ben, the former of which runs through Jálandhar, while the latter holds its course through Kapúrthala territory. The White Ben receives numerous affluents from the Hoshiárpur Hills, which meet it at right angles; and, following a serpentine path in a deep channel, finally falls into the Sutlej 4 miles above its junction with the Beas.

Several marshy lakes (*jhíls*) collect a considerable quantity of water in the rains, which they retain throughout the dry season. The largest is that of Ráhon, at the eastern corner of the District. It measures about 8650 feet in length by nearly 3000 feet in breadth; extreme area of about 500 acres. The next largest *jhíl* is near Phillaur, with a length of about 6500 feet and a breadth of about 1900 feet; extreme area about 250 acres. The nodular limestone formation, known as *kankar*, is found plentifully in the District, the best beds being within a radius of 10 miles from Jálandhar town. The District is almost entirely free from dangerous animals. Wolves,

however, are occasionally seen, and rewards are offered for their destruction. Numerous waterfowl frequent the various *jhils;* and towards Kapúrthala, antelope, *nilgai*, and hares are found.

History.—The Jálandhar Doáb at a very early period formed a separate Hindu kingdom, ruled over by a family of Chandrabansi Rájputs, whose descendants still exist as petty chiefs in the Kángra Hills. These Rájás trace their origin to Susarma Chandra, one of the heroes of the great war recorded in the *Mahábhárata*, who retired from his ancestral realm of Multán (Mooltan) at the conclusion of the conflict, and founded the kingdom of Katoch or Traigartta in the Jálandhar Doáb. The Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Hwen Thsang, in the 7th century A.D., describes it as a large territory, including not only the present District, together with the Hoshiárpur and Kángra Hills, but also the modern States of Chamba, Mandi, and Sirhind. Jálandhar then formed its capital, but Kángra ranked as an important stronghold. We have no evidence in regard to the period at which the Rájput princes were driven out of their dominions in the plain country, and restricted to the hill tract over which their descendants still hold sway. A legend in the *Padma Purána* ascribes the foundation of Jálandhar city to the great Daitya King Jálandhara, who became invincible by the practice of unusual austerities. At length, however, Siva conquered him by a disgraceful fraud, and the Yoginis or female demons devoured his body. A local version varies the tale by declaring that the giant king was crushed to death under a mass of mountains, imposed on him by Siva; whereupon flames burst forth from his mouth, which lay under Jawála Mukhi, while his feet extended to the apex of the Doáb at Multán.

Under Muhammadan rule, the Jálandhar Doáb was generally attached to the Province of Lahore, in which it is included as a *sarkár* in the great revenue survey of Akbar's reign. Its governors, however, seem usually to have held a partially independent position, subject to the payment of a fixed tribute into the imperial treasury. The last and most famous among them, Adina Beg, played an important part during the downfall of Muhammadan power in the Punjab. The Sikh reaction extended to Jálandhar at an early period, and a number of petty chieftains established themselves by force of arms as independent princes throughout the Doáb. In 1766 the town of Jálandhar fell into the hands of the Sikh *misl*, or confederacy, of Faiz-ullá-puria, then presided over by Khushhal Singh. His son and successor, Budh Singh, built a masonry fort in the city, while several other leaders similarly fortified themselves in the suburbs. Meanwhile, however, Ranjít Singh was consolidating his power in the south; and in 1811 he despatched Díwán Mokham Chand to annex the Faiz-ullá-puria dominions in the Jálandhar Doáb. Budh S

across the Sutlej; and though his troops offered some little resistance to the invader, the Mahárájá successfully established his authority in the autumn of the same year. Thenceforth Jálandhar became the capital of the Lahore possessions in the surrounding Doáb up till the date of British annexation. The petty *sardárs* were gradually ousted from their estates, and the whole country brought under the direct management of the Sikh governors. Here, as elsewhere, the fiscal administration of the Sikhs proved very oppressive, especially under the last official appointed from the Court of Lahore, Shaikh Ghulám Mohi-ud-dín, a tyrannical and grasping ruler, who exacted irregular taxes, and made over the tract to his son, Imám-ud-dín. Neither of these persons resided regularly in the Doáb, their charge being entrusted to lieutenants, the best known of whom were Sandi Khán in Hoshiárpur, and Karím Baksh in Jálandhar.

At the close of the first Sikh war, immediately after the occupation of Lahore, the British Government annexed the whole tract of land between the Sutlej and the Beas, and erected the new acquisition into a Commissionership of the trans-Sutlej States. For two years the administration was directly dependent upon the Supreme Government. In 1848, however, the Commissioner became subordinate to the Resident at Lahore; and in the succeeding year, when events forced upon us the annexation of the entire Punjab, the administration of this Division was assimilated to the general system. The Commissioner's head-quarters were fixed at Jálandhar, and three Districts were erected, having their centres at Jálandhar, Hoshiárpur, and Kángra. The assessment of the revenue at the first introduction of British rule disregarded the excessive demands of Ghulám Mohi-ud-dín and his son, and followed the milder system of his predecessor, Misr Rúp Lál, a Sikh ruler of exceptional humanity and justice, whose fiscal arrangements were found not unworthy of adoption under our own Government.

Population.—The Census of 1855, the first that was taken in the Punjab, returned the population of the area at present included in the District of Jálandhar at 698,169; while the Census of 1868 returned the population at 794,418. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a population of 789,555. The apparent decrease of 4863 persons in thirteen years is explained by the fact that in 1868 the District contained a large number of labourers employed on the railway, who afterwards returned to their own homes. The Census of 1881 was taken over an area of 1322 square miles; and it disclosed a total population of 789,555 souls, distributed among 1208 villages or towns, and residing in 115,663 houses. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 597; villages per square mile, 0·95; houses per square mile, 128; persons per village,

653; persons per house, 6·8; number of families, 181,369. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 431,435; females, 358,120; propoition of males, 54·63 per cent. Classified according to age, there were over 15 years—males, 271,746; females, 230,687; total adults, 502,433, or 63·6 per cent. of the whole population. Children of 15 and under numbered—males 159,689, and females 127,433; total children, 287,122, or 36·4 per cent. of the entire population.

Classified according to religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 338,292; Muhammadans, 358,601; Sikhs, 90,320; Jains, 690; Christians, 1631; and 'others,' 21. The tribal and caste division returns 163,757 Jats, of whom 143,664 are Hindus or Sikhs. They are an industrious, thriving race, who hold almost half the land, and pay more than half the revenue. The Rájputs number 43,789 souls, of whom all but 5608 are Muhammadans. Once the lords of the country, they are now sinking into the utmost poverty. The other races include 30,535 Bráhmans; 22,868 Khattris; 18,394 Gújars; 7120 Kambohs; 3126 Baniyás; and 123,323 Arains. The Muhammadans by race, as apart from religion, include 9720 Shaikhs, 6909 Sayyids, and 4808 Patháns.

The District contained fourteen towns in 1881, whose names and populations were as follow:—JALANDHAR (Jullundur), 52,119; KARTARPUR, 9260; ALAWALPUR, 3802; ADAMPUR, 2572; BANGA, 4565; NAWASHAHR, 4960; RAHON, 11,736; PHILLAUR, 7107; NURMAHAL, 8161; MAHATPUR, 6011; NAKODAR, 8486; BILGA, 6634; JANDIALA, 6316; and RURKHA KALAN, 5492. Of the 1208 villages and towns within the District in 1881, 270 had less than two hundred inhabitants; 467 between two hundred and five hundred; 298 between five hundred and a thousand; 129 between one thousand and two thousand; 16 between two thousand and three thousand; 17 between three thousand and five thousand; 9 between five and ten thousand; 1 between ten and fifteen thousand; and 1 with upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the male adult population exceeding 15 years of age is classified as follows in the Census Report of 1881:—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials and the learned professions, 12,440; (2) domestic and menial class, 14,799; (3) commercial class, including merchants, carriers, etc., 5021; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 114,285; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 72,554; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 18,606; (7) unspecified, 34,042.

The language in common use is Punjábí, but the peasantry generally understand Urdú.

Agriculture.—The District contains a total cultivated area of 663,283

acres, or 1036 square miles, of which 225,722 acres are artificially irrigated by private irrigation works. Of the remaining area, 1032 acres are returned as grazing land, 89,138 acres as available for cultivation, and 93,154 acres as uncultivable waste. Wheat, barley, and gram form the staples of the *rabi* or spring harvest, tobacco and poppy being the only other important items. For the *kharif* or autumn harvest, sugar-cane ranks as the most valuable crop; while millet, Indian corn, and other common food-grains also cover a considerable area. The lowlands of the Sutlej produce limited quantities of rice, and cotton and hemp are largely grown as autumn crops. *Bájrá* is almost unknown. The area under the chief staples in 1882–83 was as follows:—Wheat, 238,043 acres; barley, 11,763 acres; gram, 44,523 acres; rice, 6407 acres; sugar-cane, 44,300 acres; Indian corn, 83,463 acres; *joár*, 89,370 acres; cotton, 23,236 acres; *moth*, 64,714 acres. The total area for the *rábi* in 1882–83 was 424,445 acres; and for the *kharif*, 347,493 acres. The sugar-cane crop is commercially of the most importance to the cultivator, and is generally grown for the purpose of paying the whole or greater part of the revenue. Rotation of crops is only practised in the simple form of sowing land with spring crops after a long continuance of autumn staples, and *vice versa*. Manure is used near the towns, but not so largely as is desirable. Except on the low alluvial tract of the Sutlej, irrigation is carried on only by means of wells, worked with Persian wheels. In a few villages along the high bank of the Ben, also, Persian wheels are worked from the river. But water everywhere lies near the surface, and is absolutely necessary for the higher cereals and sugar-cane, so that well irrigation prevails very generally.

The average produce per acre of the principal agricultural staples is returned as follows for 1882–83:—Rice, 816 lbs.; cotton, 110 lbs.; wheat, 732 lbs.; inferior grains, 400 lbs.; refined sugar, 600 lbs.; tobacco, 1000 lbs.; oil-seeds, 320 lbs.; gram, 620 lbs.; barley, 920 lbs.; and *joár*, 240 lbs. The estimated agricultural stock in the District is thus returned—Cows and bullocks, 446,682; horses, 3617; ponies, 1063; donkeys, 8501; sheep and goats, 44,987. The division of the land among individual proprietors has proceeded to a very great extent. Nearly one-half of the tenants possess rights of occupancy. Total amount of Government assessment in 1881, including rates and cesses on land, £135,418. Total estimated amount of rent paid by cultivators, £275,872. Rents range from 14s. 10½d. per acre for unirrigated wheat lands, to £2, 8s. 6d. for rice, £2, 11s. 1½d. for cotton, £2, 17s. for sugar, and £4, 11s. 6d. for tobacco. Agricultural labourers receive their payment in kind. In towns, where cash wages prevail, they range from 2¼d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled workmen. Prices of food-stuffs ruled as follows in January 1883:—

Wheat, 26¼ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3d. per cwt.; gram, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 43 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 7d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; *jodr*, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of the District consists mainly in its agricultural produce. In ordinary years, grain is imported from Ludhiáná, Firozpur, and the adjoining Sikh States, for export to the hills; but occasional favourable seasons in Jálandhar, combined with high prices elsewhere, cause a large quantity of surplus grain to flow towards Agra and Bengal. Sugar-cane forms the chief commercial crop, and sugar and molasses are largely manufactured throughout the District, to supply the markets of Bíkaner, Lahore, the Punjab, and Sind. The crushing of the cane goes on from the middle of November to the middle of February, after which the refining process takes place. Some of the larger villages have as many as fifty sugar-cane presses working during the season. Ropes are made from the refuse of the sugar-cane. The only other manufacture which is extensively carried on is that of country cloth, the principal seats of which are at Jálandhar, Ráhon, Kartárpur, and Núrmahal. Silver wire and gold and silver lace are also made to some extent at Jálandhar. The carpenter's work of Khán Khánán, and the scarves and thick cotton cloth of Ráhon are famous beyond the limits of the District. English piece-goods and draught cattle constitute the chief items of the import trade. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway enters the District by an iron bridge across the Sutlej, and has stations at Phillaur, Phagwára (in Kapúrthala State), Jálandhar cantonment, Jálandhar town, and Kartárpur (for Kapúrthala town). It runs for a distance of 49 miles through the District. The Grand Trunk Road crosses the Sutlej by a bridge of boats at Phillaur, runs nearly parallel to the railway, and leaves the District a few miles beyond Kartárpur. The Hoshiárpur and Kángra road is also metalled; total length of metalled roads, 86 miles. The District contains a total length of 373 miles of unmetalled road, and 80 miles of navigable river. The telegraph is in operation along the railway and the Grand Trunk Road.

Administration.—The District staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner, one or two Assistant Commissioners, and two or more extra-Assistant Commissioners, of whom one is a European, besides the usual fiscal and medical officers. The total revenue raised in the District in 1882–83 amounted to £174,597; of which sum the land-tax contributed £122,007, or more than four-fifths. The incidence of the land revenue is the heaviest in the Punjab, in spite of which it is collected with great facility. The average assessment is returned at 3s. 11¼d. per acre of cultivation; 3s. 5⅜d. per cultivable acre; and 3s. 1d. per acre of settlement area. The regular police force in

1882–83 consisted of 364 officers and men, supplemented by 100 municipal and 56 cantonment police. These figures show a total of 520 constables, *being at the rate of 1 policeman to every* 2·54 square miles of area and every *1490 of the population. In addition to the* District and municipal police, a force of 1179 village watchmen is maintained, being paid by a regular assessment upon houses. The District jail received during the same year 1005 prisoners, with a daily average of 327. It is in contemplation to build a larger and central jail at Jálandhar, with quarters for 950 prisoners. Education was carried on in 1882–83 by means of 157 Government and aided schools, with a total roll of 6882 pupils, giving an average of 1 school to every 8·7 square miles, and 8·7 scholars to every thousand of the population. This is exclusive of private and uninspected schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 7329 boys and 433 girls as under instruction, besides 21,933 males and 422 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into 4 *tahsils* or Sub-divisions and 9 *thánás* or police circles. The 11 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue of £7025, or 1s. 1¾d. per head of the population (119,311) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The proximity of the hills renders the climate of Jálandhar comparatively moist. The annual rainfall for the thirty years ending 1881 averaged 28·49 inches. In 1881, the rainfall amounted to 34·63 inches, or 6·14 inches above the average. Malarious fever in an endemic form proves the chief cause of mortality, but small-pox often appears as an epidemic, and dysenteric complaints are of frequent occurrence. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 16,839, *or 21 per thousand; of which 10,904, or 13·81 per thousand, were due to fever alone.* There are 7 charitable dispensaries in the District, supported by local funds, which afforded relief in 1882 to 81,074 persons, of whom 878 were in-patients. Their joint revenue amounted to £10,516, of which £345 was contributed by private subscription. [For further information regarding Jálandhar, see the *Settlement Report of the District*, by Mr. (now Sir Richard) Temple, dated October 1851; the *Gazetteer of Jálandhar District*, compiled and published under the authority of the Punjab Government (1883–84); the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the *Provincial and Departmental Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jálandhar (*Jullundur*).—Northern *tahsíl* of Jálandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 12′ to 31° 37′ N., long. 75° 28′ 15″ to 75° 51′ 30″ E. Area, 392 square miles, with 39,380 houses. Population (1881) 243,759, namely, males 133,594, and females 110,165; average density of population, 622 per square mile. Number of families, 56,198. Of the 399 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 275 contain

less than five hundred inhabitants, and 84 others from five hundred to a thousand. The Muhammadans, who form the majority of the population, number 121,215; Hindus, 95,786; Sikhs, 24,834; and 'others,' 1921. Total revenue, £35,329. Of a total cultivated area of 191,412 acres in 1878–79, 45,485 acres were irrigated entirely by private enterprise. Of the uncultivated area, 32,672 acres were returned as cultivable but not under cultivation, and 59,482 acres as uncultivable waste. The annual average area under crops for the five years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 was 198,978 acres, the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 101,588 acres; Indian corn, 21,058 acres; *jodr*, 12,331 acres; *moth*, 15,199 acres; gram, 11,187 acres; barley, 3314 acres; rice, 2599 acres; sugar-cane, 10,419 acres; cotton, 6205 acres; and vegetables, 2677 acres. The administrative staff, including the Divisional and District head-quarters, consists of a Commissioner and Assistant Commissioner, 1 Deputy Commissioner, with 3 Assistants, Small Cause Court Judge, 1 *tahsildár*, 2 *munsifs*, and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 11 civil and 12 criminal courts. Number of police stations (*thánás*), 4; strength of regular police, 144 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 374.

Jálandhar (*Jullundur*).—Town, cantonment, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Jálandhar District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 19′ 36″ N., long. 75° 36′ 48″ E. Situated on the open plain, traversed by the Grand Trunk Road, and also by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway.

Jálandhar lays claim to considerable antiquity, having been the original capital of the Rájput kingdom of Katoch, which dates back to the period anterior to Alexander's invasion, and is referred to the mythical epoch of the *Mahábhárata*. Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim of the 7th century A.D., describes the town as 2 miles in circuit, the metropolis of a considerable State. Two ancient tanks alone attest the existence of the primitive Aryan city. Ibráhím Sháh of Ghazní reduced the town to the Muhammadan yoke, and it appears as a place of considerable strength during the early Musalmán times. Under the Mughal Empire it formed the capital of the Doáb between the Sutlej and the Beas. (*See* JALANDHAR DISTRICT.) The modern city consists of a cluster of wards (*muhallás*), originally distinct, and each enclosed by a wall of its own. Some of them still remain detached, but the majority have now coalesced into one; the houses between the walls have sprung up irregularly of late years. Numerous important suburbs, known as *bastis*, surround the city at distances of a mile or more. There is a fine *sarái*, built by Shaikh Karím Bakhsh, the local representative of Imám-ud-dín.

The population of Jálandhar town, including the cantonments, amounted in 1868 to 50,067, and in 1881 to 52,119 souls, thus

distributed—Muhammadans, 31,326; Hindus, 18,514; Sikhs, 363; Jains, 373; and 'others,' 1543. Number of houses, 9043. Municipal income (1882–83), £3358. The American Presbyterian Mission maintains an excellent school, which educates up to the matriculation standard of the Calcutta University, and with its two branches is attended by about 700 pupils of all castes and creeds. A female school with about 80 pupils is also maintained by the Mission; also a poorhouse, in which both in-door and out-door paupers receive relief. The trade, though considerable, presents little special interest. The staples of local traffic are English piece-goods for import and country produce for export. Railway stations both at the city and the cantonment. The cantonment, which stands at a distance of 4 miles from the city, was established in 1846. It has an area of 7¼ square miles, and a population (1881) of 9468 persons. The troops in garrison usually include 1 European infantry regiment, 1 battery of artillery, and 1 regiment of Native infantry.

Jalangí (also called *Khariá*).—One of the three great rivers of Nadiyá District, Bengal; the other two being the BHAGIRATHI and the MATABHANGA. All three streams are offshoots of the Padmá, and they are generally known as 'the Nadiyá Rivers.' Reference is made in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT to the importance and difficulty of keeping these rivers open for navigation, and a very complete summary of the means taken by Government to effect this object will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 19–32. The Padmá (pronounced Păddă), which is here the main stream of the Ganges, throws off the Jalangí at the point where it enters Nadiyá District (lat. 24° 11′ N., long. 88° 49′ E.). From this starting-point, the Jalangí flows in an exceedingly tortuous course along the north-west of the District, forming, for a distance of 50 miles (between the villages of Jalangí and Rámnagar), the boundary between Nadiyá and Murshidábád Districts. It then turns to the south, and, after innumerable windings, reaches Krishnagar, the chief town of Nadiyá District, which is situated on its left bank. From Krishnagar, the river flows west until it meets the Bhágirathí at Nadiyá town. The united stream thus formed takes the name of the HUGLI (*q.v.*). The Jalangí, like the other head-waters of the Húglí, shows from time to time a tendency to deteriorate, by silting up, and by the formation of sandbanks or *chars*. Its condition as a waterway, and as one of the channels which feed the Húglí from the Ganges, is a subject of much importance to the trade of Calcutta. The principal marts on the banks of the river are (besides Krishnagar) Karímpur, Cháprá, and Swarúpganj; the trade is chiefly in grain, oil-seeds, and molasses. The rental of the Jalangí fisheries is valued at £200 per annum. During the rainy season, the Jalangí is navigable by large native boats up to

about 4 tons burden, but in the hot weather it is fordable at many points.

Jalárapetta.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* JOLLARPET.

Jaláun.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 46′ and 26° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 59′ and 79° 56′ E. long. Jaláun is the northern District of the Jhánsi Division, situated in the tract of country west of the Jumna, known as Bundelkhand. It is bounded on the north-east and north by the river Jumna (Jamuná), on the west by the Gwalior and Datia States, on the south by the Samthar State and the river Betwá, and on the east by the Báoni State Area, 1469 square miles; population (1881) 418,142 persons The administrative head-quarters are at URAI, but the most populous town in the District is KALPI.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Jaláun lies entirely within the level plain of Bundelkhand, north of the hill country, and almost surrounded by the Jumna and its tributaries, the Betwá and the Pahúj. The central region thus enclosed is a dead level of cultivated land, almost destitute of trees, and sparsely dotted with villages, many of them for long uninhabited. The southern portion especially presents one unbroken sheet of cultivation. Nearer to the rivers, the small streams have excavated for themselves a series of ravines, which drain the higher land dry, and so impoverish the soil. The sides of these ravines, which are covered with grass and jungle, compose the greater portion of the waste lands in the District. A few stunted trees also grow upon their slopes.

The boundary rivers form the only interesting feature in Jaláun. Of these, the great stream of the Jumna is the chief, and indeed the only navigable river, even during the rainy season. Its banks, here as elsewhere, are high on the southern side; but its bed is obstructed by numerous sandbanks and shallows. The Pahúj, which forms the western boundary for the greater part of its course, has steep and rocky banks; and the Betwá, to the south, is rapid and unnavigable. The little river Non flows through the centre of the District, which it drains instead of watering, by innumerable small ravines. The District contains no lakes or *jhils* of importance, and no canals. It has no mineral wealth or forests. Woods which formerly existed along the river banks have been cleared, with the exception of the preserves of the Rájás of Rámpur and Gopálpur, and the want of timber and even fuel is severely felt. As a whole, Jaláun is wanting in picturesqueness or beauty, but possesses great fertility and abundant agricultural resources, which, in the hands of a more enterprising and intelligent peasantry, might be easily developed into wealth and prosperity. Unfortunately,

however, the general poverty and apathy of Bundelkhand at present weigh heavily upon the District, and greatly retard its progress.

History.—Before the Aryan immigration, the region now known as Jaláun appears to have been inhabited by Bhíls; but its early history, after the Aryan conquest, is as mythical as the annals of other Indian countries. The first period concerning which anything can be stated with certainty is that of the Nágá dynasty, which lasted from the 1st to the 3rd century of the Christian era. A short account of their rule has been given under the District of BANDA. After the dissolution of the Narwár monarchy, a period of dynastic struggles appears to have succeeded, during which the principal families of Bundelkhand in later times first rose into prominence. The eastern portion of the Nágá dominions fell under the power of the Chandelas; while the western Districts, including that of Jaláun, were ruled by a Rájput clan, the Kachhwáhas. They seem to have held the greater portion of the District until the invasion of the Bundelas in the 14th century. But the town of Kálpi on the Jumna, the gate of the west, was conquered for the Musalmán Princes of Ghor by Kutab-ud-dín as early as the year 1196 A.D. It was guarded by a strong Muhammadan garrison, and became the head-quarters for the administration of all their territories beyond the Jumna, and the starting-point for their expeditions both into Bengal and the Deccan. When, early in the 14th century, the Bundelas, a race of hardy mountaineers, poured down from their southern fastnesses upon the fertile plain of the Betwá and the Pahúj, they occupied the greater part of Jaláun, and even succeeded for a short time in holding the fortified post of Kálpi. That important possession, however, was soon recovered by the Musalmáns, and passed with the rest of their territories under the sway of the Mughal Emperors.

Akbar's governors at Kálpi maintained a nominal authority over the surrounding country; but the Bundela Rájás in the south were practically independent of the Court of Delhi. Under Jahángír and Sháh Jahán, the native princes were in a state of chronic revolt, which culminated in the war of independence under Chhatar Sál. On the outbreak of his rebellion in 1671, he occupied a large Province to the south of the Jumna, including the modern District of Jaláun. Setting out from this base, he reduced the whole of Bundelkhand, in which task he was assisted by the Maráthás, then for the first time overrunning Central India under their earliest Peshwá, Báji Ráo. Chhatar Sál died in 1734, and left by his will one-third of his dominions to his Maráthá ally, on condition that his descendants should be maintained in the remainder. The Maráthás displayed their usual alacrity in occupying the territory thus bequeathed them, and in making such additions as from time to time seemed practicable. Their governor

had his head-quarters at the important strategic post of Kálpi; and before long succeeded in quietly annexing the whole of Bundelkhand.

Under Maráthá rule, the country was a prey to constant anarchy and intestine strife. The hills in the region south of the Betwa were crowned by the mud forts of robber chiefs, who swooped down upon the fertile plains, and left nothing to the miserable cultivators beyond the barest necessaries of life. To this period must be traced the origin of all the poverty and desolation which still, after nearly forty years of British rule, are conspicuous throughout the District. Our first connection with Jaláun arose from the treaty of Bassein in 1802. By that arrangement, the Peshwá agreed to cede certain portions of territory for the support of a British force. In order to carry out these terms, a supplementary arrangement was made with Rájá Himmat Bahádur, by which his aid was purchased in exchange for a cession of lands. (*See* BANDA DISTRICT.) Kálpi and the surrounding country were included in this grant. Himmat Bahádur, however, died in 1804; and the *parganá* of Kálpi was thereupon handed over by the British to Náná Govind Ráo, who was in possession of the rest of the District. He had assisted Shamsher Bahádur, the Nawáb of Bánda, in his opposition to the British occupation; but, after two years, he submitted to the new rulers, and was restored to all his possessions.

In 1806, Kálpi was finally made over to the British, in exchange for certain villages, and formed part of the extensive District of Bundelkhand. The remainder of Jaláun was left in the hands of Govind Ráo, and after his death passed to his son, and ultimately to his son's widow, a girl of only fourteen years. During the minority of her brother, whom she was permitted to adopt, the Jaláun State became wretchedly impoverished, and only yielded in 1838 one-fourth of the revenue which it was estimated to produce in 1803. The country fell almost into a wilderness, and many villages were entirely depopulated by emigration. But the boy chief died without issue in 1840, and his territories lapsed to the British Government. In the following year, Chirgáon, a neighbouring Native State, was annexed, owing to the rebellion of its chief. In 1844, three other *parganás* were ceded by Sindhia for the support of the Gwalior Contingent. At various later dates, portions of Jaláun were made over to Hamírpur, Jhánsi, and other surrounding Districts; and in 1856, the present boundaries were substantially settled. During the period of British rule before the Mutiny, Jaláun, like other portions of Bundelkhand, recovered its prosperity only by very slow degrees. The *zamíndárs* had been left heavily in debt, and almost ruined, by the government of Govind Ráo; and the assessments made at the various subsequent settlements followed, perhaps, too closely the native system. Property was so greatly depreciated, that in some cases no purchasers could be found for

estates which had lapsed to the Government. This state of things continued down to the outbreak of the Mutiny in the spring of 1857.

News of the rising at Cawnpur reached Kálpi early in June; and shortly afterwards, intelligence arrived that the Europeans at Jhánsi had been massacred. Thereupon the men of the 53rd Native Infantry deserted their officers; and on the 15th of June, the Jhánsi mutineers reached the District, and murdered all the Europeans on whom they could lay their hands. Meanwhile, the Gúrsarái chief, Kesho Ráo, adopted a wavering policy, and assumed supreme authority in the District,—at first on the ground that it had been entrusted to him by the Deputy Commissioner, but afterwards on his own responsibility. He kept a few European officers as prisoners for some months, until after the defeat of the infamous Náná Sáhib and his flight from Cawnpur; but those events induced him to change his tone, and to treat with General Neil for their restoration. After sending them in safety to Cawnpur, the chief established himself for a time at Jaláun; but upon the arrival of Tántia Topí in October, the usual anarchic quarrels arose. Kesho Ráo was deposed; his son was seized by the rebels; and the mutineers of Jaláun, joining those of Gwalior, set out for Cawnpur. Meanwhile, the natives everywhere revelled in the licence of plunder and murder which the Mutiny had spread through all Bundelkhand. In May 1858, after the fall of Jhánsi, Sir Hugh Rose's force entered the District, and routed the rebels at Kúnch. There he left some troops of the Gúrsarái chief, whose allegiance had returned with the advent of the British forces. A Deputy Commissioner was put in charge of the District at Kúnch, and Sir Hugh Rose advanced to attack the strong rebel position at Kálpi. On the 23rd May, he drove them from that post, and shortly afterwards marched in pursuit towards Gwalior. Unfortunately he was unable to leave any troops in garrison, except a small body to guard the passage at Kálpi; and accordingly, on his withdrawal, the western portion of the District fell once more into anarchy. Plundering went on as before; and in July and August, the rebels again attacked and pillaged Kúnch and Jaláun. The latter town was immediately recovered by a detachment from the garrison at Kálpi; but it was not till September that the guerilla leaders were defeated, and some further time elapsed before the work of reorganization could be effected. Since the Mutiny, the condition of Jaláun appears to have been steadily, if very slowly, improving; and it is hoped that the more lenient fiscal arrangements of the present day will conduce to the prosperity of this still backward region.

People.—All enumerations of the population previous to 1865 were so imperfect as to be practically useless, even if they were not rendered unavailable for purposes of comparison by great differences in the area of the District. The Census of 1865 showed the total number of

inhabitants to be 405,604. In 1872, the population had decreased to 404,447, being a falling off of ·3 per cent., the decrease being due to deaths from famine and emigration, particularly in 1869. By 1881 the population had recovered itself, and was returned at 418,142, showing an increase of 13,695, or 3·4 per cent., in the nine years since 1872. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be summarized as under:—Area of the District, 1469 square miles; number of towns and villages, 857; number of houses, 66,734; persons per square mile, 284·5; inhabited villages per square mile, 0·58; houses per square mile, 45·4; persons per village, 488; persons per house, 6·2. Classified according to sex, there were 216,145 males and 201,997 females; proportion of males, 52 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males 80,555, and females 70,260; total children, 150,815, or 36·07 per cent.; 15 years and upwards—males 135,590, and females 131,737; total adults, 267,327, or 63·93 per cent. About 89 per cent. of the inhabitants belong to the rural, and 11 per cent. to the urban, population. As regards religion, Hindus numbered 392,332, or 93·8 per cent. of the total population; Muhammadans, 25,666, or 6·0 per cent.; Jains, 130; and Christians, 14.

The principal landowning tribes are—Bráhmans, numbering 53,887; Káyasths, 8790; Kúrmís, 18,473; Gújars, 6583; and the Kachhwáhas and Sengars, whose numbers are not returned separately in the Census Report. The Kachhwáhas, who are Rájputs, are the leading clan of the District, and comprise most of the great native families. The Sengars, a clan originally Bráhman, which has intermarried with Rájputs, and is now ranked amongst them, are also numerous and influential; during the Mutiny they were conspicuous as plunderers. Total Rájputs, 40,733. The Maráthá *pandits*, who formed part of the governing body till 1840, are few in number, but wealthy; in 1857 they were almost unanimously rebellious. Many of them have since emigrated to Gwalior or to the Maráthá country. The other most numerous Hindu castes in the District are the following:—Baniyás, 16,464; Ahírs, 13,639; Chamárs, 60,232; Gadárias, 12,121; Kachhís, 28,418; Korís, 21,164; and Lodhis, 12,305. The Musalmáns have no social or political importance, and in sect they are almost exclusively Sunnís. There is no native Christian settlement, nor has the Bráhma Samáj made any progress in the District.

As regards occupations, the Census Report returns the male population under six classes:—(1) Professional, including Government officials and the learned professions, 5216; (2) domestic servants, board and lodging-house keepers, 1433; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 3780; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 84,294; (5) manufacturing and industrial

class, 31,498; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, including general labourers, male children, etc., 89,924. There were four towns in 1881 with a population exceeding 5000, namely, KALPI, 14,306; KUNCH, 13,739; JALAUN, 10,057; and URAI, 7738. Of minor villages and towns, 336 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 275 between two hundred and five hundred; 151 between five hundred and a thousand; 71 between one thousand and two thousand; and 20 between two thousand and five thousand inhabitants. The language in common use is a dialect of Hindí, but a corrupt form of Urdú is spoken in the Muhammadan villages.

Agriculture.—The staple crops of the District are cereals, gram, and cotton. Of these, gram occupies the largest area; and next in point of acreage come wheat, and the two millets known as *joár* and *bájra.* Cotton was very extensively cultivated during the scarcity caused by the American war; and although the total out-turn is now only one-tenth of that produced in 1864, it still ranks fifth of all crops grown in Jaláun. About 5 *lákhs* worth (say £50,000) is exported annually. Oil-seeds, dye-stuffs, and sugar-cane are also raised, but in no large quantities. The seasons are those prevalent throughout Bundelkhand, —the *kharíf* or autumn crops, sown in June or August, consist chiefly of millets and cotton; the *rabí* or spring crops, sown in November or December, are mainly gram and wheat. Of the total area of 1477 square miles in 1881, 952 square miles were returned as under cultivation, 215 as cultivable, 259 as uncultivable, and the remainder as revenue-free and non-assessed. This is exclusive of 85 square miles comprising the three semi-independent chiefships of Rámpurá, Jagamanpur, and Gopálpur, concerning which no details are available, and which pay no tribute or revenue to Government. The *kharíf* or autumn food crop in 1881 was grown over an area of 182,548 acres, and non-food crops over 70,533 acres. The *rabí* or spring harvest area was returned at 370,384 acres of food crops, and 5501 acres of non-food crops. Total *kharíf* and *rabí* area, including land twice cropped, 629,966 acres. The cultivation of the *al* plant (Morinda citrifolia) holds a prominent place in the District, and the dyeing of cloths therefrom is the staple industry of the towns of Kúnch, Kálpi, Sayyidnagar, and Kotra. The total produce of grain is estimated at 2,987,292 *maunds*, or 2,194,745 cwts., of which 2,313,210 *máunds* are required for home consumption, leaving 674,081 *maunds*, or 495,241 cwts., valued at £134,816, for export.

Rotation of crops is practised to a slight extent, and exhausting staples are sown only after a long rest. Manuring is not resorted to, except in the case of sugar-cane and other expensive produce. The practice is, however, on the increase. Irrigation was employed in 1881 over 18,889 acres. Of this area, 7719 acres, situated in *parganá* Kúnch to

the south of the District, are watered by the natural channel known as the *pau*, which flows from the uplands in the Native State of Samthar. The remainder is artificially irrigated from wells; only an insignificant fraction being supplied from tanks. A scheme is (1883) in progress, however, for damming up the Betwá, and distributing abundant irrigation by means of canals. Jaláun has suffered at times, like the surrounding Districts, from the noxious *káns* grass. The condition of the peasantry is still far from comfortable; their houses and villages are squalid, and the usual apathetic poverty of Bundelkhand is noticeable in their dress and surroundings. Both *zamíndárs* and cultivators are generally deeply in debt to the village banker; and they have learned to look upon such indebtedness as the normal economical state.

About one-half of the land is held by cultivators possessing rights of occupancy. A holding of 90 acres is considered large; one of 20 to 25 acres, a fair middle-sized farm. The adult male agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 83,991, namely, landholders, 8960; estate agents, 719; cultivators, 57,961; and field labourers, 15,033. The adult female agriculturists numbered 35,844, namely, landholders, 1819; cultivators, 26,612; and field labourers, 7413. Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £108,643, or 3s. 6⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, including cesses, etc., paid by the cultivators, £206,815, or 6s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Rents run from 2s. 7d. to 7s. 6d. per acre, according to the nature of the soil and the caste of the tenant, the lower castes, such as Kurmís and Kachhís, paying more than Bundelas and Rájputs for lands of the same quality. The average rate on all classes of land is 5s. 4½d. per acre. Profits are hoarded, or spent in jewellery for the women; nothing is employed as capital in land improvements or investment. Wages have risen much of late years; the chief causes being the rise in price of food-stuffs, the increased demand for labour on the railways, and the cessation of the former stream of immigrants from Oudh, whose people now find employment and security under British rule in their own country. These various influences have produced a rise of 25 per cent. during the last ten years. The average wages of tailors are now about 7½d. per diem; carpenters, blacksmiths, head masons, 6d. per diem; common masons, road-makers, 3d. to 4½d.; boys, 2¼d.; women and children, ¾d. to 1½d. Agricultural wages are paid to a great extent in kind. The average prices of the chief food-grains in 1882-83 (in Jaláun *parganá*) were as follows:—Gram, 29 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.; *joár*, 28 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; wheat, 21 *sers* the rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; common rice, 14 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Drought is the great danger to be apprehended

in Jaláun. Famine or scarcity from that cause occurred in 1783, in 1833, in 1837, and in 1848. The last important drought was that in August and September of 1868. Two-thirds of the autumn, and one-half of the cold-weather, crops were then destroyed. No actual famine resulted, but great distress prevailed, especially in the remote southern villages, until the summer of 1869. The surplus grain of the Doáb passed through Kálpi southward and westward in large quantities. At Urái, rations of 1 lb. per adult and ½ lb. per child were distributed by Government. Large numbers were also assisted by private charity at Kálpi. In the south, relief works were opened in the shape of road-making and excavation of tanks. The total cost of the relief operations amounted to £1864, and the average number of persons daily relieved was 1800. The maximum price of gram during the scarcity was 9 *sers* 3 *chhatáks* the rupee, or about 12s. 2¼d. per cwt. Jaláun is more favourably situated for communication with the Doáb, *viâ* Kálpi and Shergarhghát, than any other District of the Jhánsi Division; but even here the agricultural population suffered much hardship in 1868, and lost one-third of their cattle. It was necessary to suspend the collection of a large portion of the revenue; but no advances were needed for the purpose of buying seed, as was the case in neighbouring Districts to the south.

Commerce and Trade.—Jaláun is almost entirely an agricultural District, and its chief exports are cotton and grain. Kálpi is the great mart of the District, through which traffic passes north-westward by Cawnpur, and south-eastward toward Mírzapur and Calcutta. Kúnch is also a considerable trading town. The business of the outlying villages is chiefly conducted at fairs, where English cloth and other European goods are beginning to make their appearance. There are scarcely any manufactures of sufficient importance to deserve record. Coarse cotton cloth is woven for home use; and the dyeing of such fabrics with the red *al* dye, obtained from the root of Morinda citrifolia grown in the District, is the staple industry of the principal towns. No mines or forests exist in Jaláun. The communications are moderately good. The river traffic by Kálpi is chiefly for through goods; and the Jumna is little used as a highway. The nearest railway station is at Phaphúnd on the East Indian line, in Etáwah District, which is connected with the towns of Urái and Jaláun by a good commercial road, crossing the river at Shergarh. There is also a great military road from Kálpi to Jhánsi, metalled throughout. Total length of roads, 534½ miles. In times of flood, however, the Betwá and the Pahúj are often impassable for days.

Administration.—It is almost impossible to give any intelligible account of the fiscal history of this District within reasonable limits, owing to the frequent changes, transfers, and redistribution of villages

and *parganás* made with the surrounding Districts and Native States. When Jaláun was first taken over by the British Government from the family of Govind Ráo, the last chief, who died without heirs in 1840, it was already greatly impoverished by their misgovernment. The existing assessments were found to be too high, and successive reductions became necessary from time to time. After the Mutiny, a lighter settlement was introduced, which seems to be working beneficially for the restoration of agricultural prosperity. The revenue in 1860 amounted to £128,026, and the expenditure to £47,601, or rather more than one-third of the revenue. In 1870, the receipts had fallen to £112,128, and the expenditure to £24,813, or rather more than one-fifth of the revenue. The immense difference in the expenditure at these two dates, amounting to a decrease of nearly one-half, is chiefly due to the great retrenchment in the items of justice, police, and public works. In 1882–83, the total revenue of Jaláun was £120,624, of which £90,942, or 75·39 per cent., was derived from the land-tax. The other principal items are excise, stamps, and fees in courts of justice.

The administration is on the non-regulation system, which unites civil, criminal, and fiscal functions in the same officer. The District is administered by 1 Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant Commissioners, 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 5 *tahsíldárs*. It contains 25 police stations. The regular and municipal police in 1882 numbered 573 men, maintained at a cost of £5818, of which £5018 was paid from imperial revenues. There were also 1237 village watchmen, paid at the rate of 3 rupees a month. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property, consisted in 1882 of 1810 men, giving 1 man to every 0·81 square mile of the area and to every 231 of the population. The statistics of crime in the same year were as follows:—Murder, 6 cases; robbery, 3; house-trespass, 224; theft, 759; cattle theft, 64. There is 1 jail in the District, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 114 in 1882. Education has been progressing slowly of late years. In 1860 there were 1434 children under instruction in Government-inspected schools; in 1871, the number had increased to 2703; in 1882–83, the Government schools were returned at 98, with 2597 pupils. This, however, is exclusive of private and uninspected indigenous schools; and the Census of 1881 returned 4013 boys and 28 girls as under instruction, besides 13,761 males and 86 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District is divided into 5 fiscal divisions, with an aggregate in 1882 of 1294 estates, the average land revenue from each being £70, 10s. The District contains 3 municipalities—Urái, Kálpi, and Kúnch, with a total municipal population of 35,797. In 1882–83, their aggregate revenue amounted to £2182, of which

£1759 was derived from octroi, or an average taxation of 1s. per head; expenditure, £2238.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Jaláun, though hot and dry, is not considered unhealthy. The mean temperature is about 81·9° F. for the whole year; the monthly averages being as follows:—January, 65°; February, 75·5°; March, 80°; April, 90°; May, 96·5°; June, 95·2°; July, 90·2°; August, 87·2°; September, 86·2°; October, 82·5°; November, 68·2°; and December, 66°. The rainfall for the ten years preceding 1881 was as follows:—1871-72, 43·0 inches; 1872-73, 28·8 inches; 1873-74, 31·4 inches; 1874-75, 43·6 inches; 1875-76, 35·5 inches; 1876-77, 32·18 inches; 1877-78, 15·4 inches; 1878-79, 20·4 inches; 1879-80, 33·0 inches; and 1880-81, 15·0 inches. Annual average for the 10 years, 29·82 inches.

The prevailing diseases of Jaláun are fevers, dysentery, and other bowel complaints. The total number of deaths recorded in 1881 was 16,074, being at the rate of 38·40 per thousand, of which 24·41 per thousand were assigned to fevers. The endemic diseases are chiefly attributable to bad drainage, impure water, and dirty habits. The want of shade not only induces a dry and hot atmosphere, but is also answerable for much sickness. Rinderpest broke out in the District in 1870, but was repressed by a rigorous system of segregation and quarantine before it had caused any serious loss. [For further information regarding Jaláun, see *Settlement Report of the District*, by Colonel Ternan, Mr. E. White, C.S., and Colonel Lloyd, dated 1870; the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, C.S. (vol. i., Government Press, Allahabad, 1874); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces* for 1881; and the *Provincial and Departmental Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jaláun.—Central northern *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level plain, stretching inward from the southern bank of the Jumna, and conterminous with Jaláun *parganá*. Area, 323 square miles, of which 242 are cultivated. Population (1872) 91,501; (1881) 94,873, namely, males 40,098, and females 45,775. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 89,404; and Muhammadans, 5469. Of the 231 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 170 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 40 from five hundred to a thousand; 18 from one to two thousand; and 3 upwards of two thousand. Land revenue, £22,226; total Government revenue, £25,067; rental paid by cultivators, £50,975; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5d. In 1884, the *tahsíl* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 3 police stations (*thánás*). Strength of regular police, 41 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 330.

Jaláun.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, and former capital of a Native State. Lat. 26° 8′ 32″ N., long. 79° 22′ 42″ E.

The town occupies a large area, and contains a considerable number of good houses, and a ruined fort, demolished in 1860, the former residence of the Maráthá governors. The principal inhabitants are Maráthá Bráhmans, known as Dakhiní Pandits, whose ancestors held offices under the Peshwá's deputy. The position of the town is low, and surrounding swamps engender cholera and malarious fever, for which reason the head-quarters of the District have been fixed at URAI, instead of in this place. Population (1881) 10,057, namely, Hindus, 8604, and Muhammadans, 1453. *Tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school. A good new *bázár* known as Whiteganj has recently been constructed on the extensive open site of the old fort, at a cost of £5000. No manufactures, little trade. A good road runs to Shergarh ferry on the Jumna, 14 miles from Phaphúnd station on the East Indian Railway.

Jáldhaká.—River of Northern Bengal, rising in the Bhután Hills. It flows from north to south, marking the boundary between the British District of Dárjíling and the State of Bhután; passes through Jalpáiguri District; sweeps eastward into Kuch Behar, and, after a south-easterly course, joins the DHARLA or TORSHA RIVER, with which it has several cross communications, near the trading villages of Durgápur and Gitaldaha in that State. In the upper part of its course, the Jáldhaká is called the De-chu; its principal tributaries in Dárjíling District being the Parálang-chu, Rang-chu, and Ma-chu, all on its right bank. In the lower part of its course, the Jáldhaká is known as the Singímárí; its chief affluents in Jalpáiguri are the Murtí and the Dina,—in Kuch Behar, the Mujnái, Satanga, Duduyá, Dolang, and Dálkhoá. The Jáldhaká is a wide river, but very shallow.

Jalesar.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Etah District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the Doáb plain, but much intersected by ravines along the banks of the Isan Nadí. The *tahsíl* was recently transferred to Etah from Agra District. Area, 227 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated. Population in 1872, 125,591; in 1881, 118,925, namely, males 64,672, and females 54,253. In 1881, Hindus numbered 103,487; Muhammadans, 13,135; Jains, 2295; 'others,' 8. Number of towns and villages, 158. Land revenue, £27,531; total Government revenue, £37,015; rental paid by cultivators, £56,661.

Jalesar.—Town and municipality in Etah District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Jalesar *tahsíl*. Lat. 27° 28′ N., long. 78° 20′ 30″ E. Situated on the Doáb plain, 38 miles east of the Jumna and of Muttra. Station on the East Indian Railway, at Jalesar road. Population (1881) 15,609, namely, Hindus, 9371; Muhammadans, 5998; Jains, 239; Christian, 1. Area of town site, 222 acres. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £974; from taxes, £871, or 1s. 1⅛d. per head of population.

Jaleswar (popularly *Jellasore*).—An old border town between Bengal and Orissa, now within the north-east boundary of Balasor District; situated in lat. 21° 47′ 20″ N., and long. 87° 13′ 35″ E., on the Calcutta high-road. The name is also applied to an ancient Muhammadan circle or *sarkár*, which comprised the present Midnapur District, including Hijili. During the last century, the East India Company had a factory at Jaleswar, and established some sort of order along the neighbouring frontier. On the abolition of the Company's factory, the town ceased to have any external importance as a seat of trade.

Jalgáon.—*Town and municipality in the Nasírábád* (Nusseerábád) Sub-division, Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 261 miles north-east of Bombay. Lat. 20° 25′ N., long. 74° 33′ E. Population (1872) 6893; (1881) 9918, namely, Hindus, 8234; Muhammadans, 1297; Jains, 269; Christians, 28; Pársís, 3; and 'others,' 87. Municipal income (1882–83), £2968; municipal expenditure, £2819; rate of taxation, 4s. 1½d. per head of the population (9882) within municipal limits. Area of town site, 417 acres. Seat of an assistant superintendent of police, of the revenue authorities of the Sub-division, and of a sub-judge's court. The railway was opened in 1860. Situated in the centre of a rich cotton-growing district, Jalgáon has during the last fifty years risen to the position of an important mercantile town. During the American war (1862–65), the town was the great cotton mart of Khándesh. It suffered severely from the fall in the value of products at the close of the war, but its trade is steadily recovering. The chief articles of commerce are cotton, linseed, and sesamum. There were at Jalgáon in 1882 three full-power cotton-presses, one large cotton ginning factory, and one cotton spinning and weaving mill, all worked by steam. In the same year, the number of looms was 220, and of spindles, 19,000. The Bombay Bank has a branch, and sends an agent during the busy season (November–May). The town has been greatly improved of late years. A new suburb, Pollen Pet, has been built; a market-place laid regularly out; and a new school and dispensary erected. There are also a travellers' bungalow, post-office, *mámlatdár's* court, native rest-house, police station, and municipal office. The municipality has laid out a garden on the site of part of the old cotton market. One of the most striking of many handsome buildings in the new suburb is a three-storied dwelling built by the *pátel* or head-man of Pathri. Water is carried through iron pipes from the Mehrun lake, two miles distant. A good road joins Jalgáon and the railway station. There is also a metalled road between Jalgáon and Neri, 14 miles distant.

Jalgáon.—Village in Arvi *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces;

6 miles north-west of Arvi, and 40 from Wardhá town. Population (1881) 2121, chiefly agriculturists. Hindus numbered 1991; Muhammadans, 110; Jains, 14; aborigines, 6. Fine *pán* and other gardens; 90 wells. Bi-weekly market; school.

Jalgáon.—*Táluk* of Akola District, Berár. Lat. 20° 16′ 45″ to 21° 16′ 45″ N., long. 76° 25′ to 77° 26′ E. Area, 392 square miles; contains 3 towns and 162 villages, with 19,428 houses. Population (1867) 83,110; (1881) 105,739, namely, 54,434 males and 51,305 females; average density, 269·74 persons per square mile. Total increase (1867 to 1881), 22,629, or 27·23 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 98,071; Muhammadans, 7521; Sikhs, 40; Jains, 100; and Pársís, 7. Agriculturists numbered 77,152, or 72·9 per cent. of the total population of the *táluk*, the average area of cultivated and cultivable land being 2·86 acres per head of the agricultural population. Of the total area of 392 square miles, 360 square miles were assessed for Government revenue in 1881, of which 310·5 square miles were returned as under cultivation, 16·2 square miles as cultivable; and 33·2 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £33,218, or an average of 3s. 4d. per cultivated acre. The *táluk* is crossed by the Nágpur Branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; Jalam junction (with branch to Khamgáon), Shegáon, Paras, Dapki, Akola, and Borgáon stations, are situated in it. The *táluk* contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 47 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 176.

Jalgáon.—*Parganá* of Barwáni State, Deputy Bhíl (Mánpur) Agency, Central India. Area, 672 square miles, of which 11,334 acres are cultivated, 105,500 acres cultivable, and the remainder barren and hilly. Revenue (1877-78), £828. Population (1881) 4196, dwelling in 883 houses. Khetia and Melan are the two largest villages in the *parganá*.

Jalgáon-Jambod.—Town in Akola District, Berár; called Jalgáon-Jambod, from an adjacent village, to distinguish it from Jalgáon in Khándesh. Lat. 21° 3′ N., long. 76° 35′ E.; situated 44 miles north-west of Akola town, 8 miles south of the Sátpura Hills, and 6 miles from the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, the nearest station being at Nándúra, in Buldáná District. Population (1867) 8763; (1881) 10,392, namely, 5267 males and 5125 females. Of the total population, 8649 were returned as Hindus; 1715 Muhammadans; 10 Sikhs; 11 Jains; and 7 Pársís. Area of town site, 142 acres. A pass over the hills north of the town leads to Asírgarh and Burhánpur, but is nearly impracticable even for pack-bullocks. On the crest of the hills, between Jalgáon and Burhánpur, and commanding the road, is the village of Bingára, inhabited by Muhammadan Bhíls. The

only water procurable in these hills for many miles is supplied by a tank near Bingára. Jalgáon is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbarí* as the head-quarters of a *parganá*. Spring water is abundant. In many large gardens, principally on the western side of the town, grapes, plantains, and betel creepers are grown. Weekly market. Average import of cotton, 5000 bullock-loads, of about 260 lbs. each. The town contains an extra-Assistant Commissioner's court, the usual *tahsíl* buildings, a middle-class school, police station, charitable dispensary, and post-office.

Jáliá Amrájí.—Petty State, Undsarviya District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated about 9 miles south-west of Pálitána. Jáliá Amrájí consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1881) 608. The *tálukdárs* are Sarviyá Rájputs. The revenue is estimated at £220; tribute of £12, 16s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jáliá Dewání.—Petty State in Hálár District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Jáliá Dewání consists of 10 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. The revenue is estimated at £1300; tribute of £118, 3s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £37 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jáliá Manáji.—Petty State, Undsarviya District, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Jáliá Manáji consists of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Population (1881) 180. The revenue is estimated at £200; tribute of £3, 2s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jálna.—Town and cantonment in Aurangábád District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) State (Nizam's Dominions), Southern India. Lat. 19° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 56′ E.; lies on the right bank of the Kundalika stream, opposite the town of Kádirábád, and 240 miles north-west of Sikandarábád (Secunderábád), 38 miles east of Aurangábád, and 210 miles north-east of Bombay. Population (1881) 6258. A British cantonment, occupied by a regiment of the Haidarábád Contingent, is situated on a gentle declivity to the east of the town, at an elevation of 1652 feet above the sea, in an arid tract of country. Population (1881) 9933. The lines, built in 1827, extend from south-east to north-west, and can accommodate a troop of horse artillery, one regiment of Native cavalry, and three regiments of Native infantry. Sita, wife of Ráma, is said to have resided anciently at Jálna, then called Jankapur. In the time of Akbar, Jálna was held as a *jágír* by one of the Mughal generals. Abu-l-Fazl, the Muhammadan historian, dwelt in the town when exiled from Akbar's court. During the Maráthá war in 1803, British troops under Colonel Stevenson occupied the place. The only public buildings of note are the *sarái*, a stone-built rest-house, and a mosque. There are 3 Hindu temples. Trade

has declined. The only manufactures carried on in Jálna now are those of cotton cloths, gold and silver lace. A fort, erected in 1725, now occupied by a *tahsíldár's* guard, stands in the east quarter of the town. In the fort is a remarkable well, the sides of which are excavated into galleries and chambers. The gardens of Jálna, to the north of the fort, are celebrated in the Dekhan, and the fruit is sent in large quantities to Haidarábád, Bombay, and other distant places. Half a mile to the west of Jálna is the Motí Taláo, an immense tank, supplying the town with water. Jálna cantonment has a post-office, travellers' bungalow, and two churches, one of which belongs to the Free Church Mission, and has a school attached to it.

Jálor.—Town in the Native State of Jodhpur or Márwár, Rájputána. Lat. 25° 22′ N., long. 72° 57′ 45″ E. Jálor, situated on the southern border of the vast sandy plain of Márwár, was founded early in the Christian era by the Pramárá dynasty. It is built of large masses of cut stone in a good state of preservation. The town is of considerable importance. Drinking vessels of bell-metal, prettily engraved, are made by Thatheras. The fort of Jálor is 800 yards long and 400 wide, and commands the town from an eminence of 1200 feet. The main entrance is on the northern face, and leads up a steep, slippery, stone roadway, passing three distinct lines of defence, all of considerable strength, and mounting guns on the outer face of the fort. There is but a single rampart wall, about 20 feet in height. In former ages it was famous for its strength, and the many gallant sieges it withstood. There are two tanks in the fort.

Jalori (or *Suket*).—Mountain range in Kángra District, Punjab; one of the minor Himálayan chains. It is an offshoot of the mid-Himálayan system, which traverses the Sub-division of Seoráj in Kúlu, and throws off a lofty spur to the north, separated from the outer Himálayas or Dháola-dhar range by the deep gorge of the Biás (Beas). It forms the dividing ridge beween the affluents of that river and the watershed of the Sutlej (Satlej). The range is crossed by two roads, one, the Jalori Pass (height, 10,980 feet), leading towards Simla; the other, the Basleo (10,880 feet), towards Rámpur, in Bashahr State.

Jalpáigurí.—The north-eastern District of the Rájsháhí Kuch Behar Division, in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. It lies between 26° 0′ 35″ and 26° 59′ 30″ N. lat., and between 88° 22′ 40″ and 89° 55′ 20″ E. long., occupying an irregularly shaped tract south of Bhután and north of the State of Kuch Behar and Rangpur District. Area, 2884 square miles. Population (1881) 581,562 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at JALPAIGURI town, which is also a military station.

Physical Aspects.—From a geographical point of view, as well as for administrative purposes, the District is divided into two distinct parts—

the Regulation tract, lying towards the south-west, which originally formed portion of the permanently settled District of Rangpur; and the strip of country, about 22 miles in width, running along the foot of the Himálayas, which was annexed from Bhután in 1865, and is known as the WESTERN DWARS. The former of these tracts resembles in most respects the neighbouring Districts of Rangpur and Dinájpur. Its continuous expanse of level paddy fields is only broken by the groves of bamboos, palms, and fruit-trees, which encircle the homesteads of the *jotdárs*, or substantial tenant-farmers. There is but little waste land along the banks of the numerous small streams and water-courses which intersect this south-western portion of the District. With the exception of a few patches of tree jungle and brushwood, the only large tract of uncultivated country in the Regulation Division of the District is a valuable and extensive *sál* forest, comprising an area of 50 or 60 square miles, the private property of the Ráikat of Baikunthpur.

In the other tract, comprising a part of the Bhután Dwárs, the scenery is very different. This tract, which was annexed at the close of the war of 1864–65, forms a flat, level strip of country, averaging about 22 miles in width, running along the foot of the Bhután Hills. Its chief characteristics are the numerous rivers and hill streams which flow in every direction, and the large tracts of *sál* forest and heavy grass and reed jungle, interspersed with wild cardamoms. These grass and reed tracts are especially dense and luxuriant along the banks of the rivers and streams, where they grow many feet in height; in some places they are impenetrable by man. Here the beautiful cotton tree (Bombax malabaricum) is to be found growing in great luxuriance and with surprising vigour and rapidity, resisting even the action of the fires by which the jungles and undergrowth are yearly consumed at the commencement of every cultivating season. With this single exception, these vast tracts of grassy jungle are almost treeless, and bring out into greater relief the village sites, situated few and far between. These little hamlets are remarkable for the most luxuriant vegetation. Large clumps of bamboos and groves of plantain trees hem them in on all sides, almost hiding the houses from view. Above them are seen the tall, graceful betel-nut palms, and here and there a few other large trees, such as mango, jack, and *pípal;* and round about the dwellings, in fact up to the very doorways, are shrubs and creeping plants of endless form and variety. Fine fields of rice and mustard are also found in the vicinity of the villages. The scenery in the north of the Dwárs, along the foot of the mountains, where the large rivers debouch upon the plains, is very grand and beautiful, especially at the point where the Sankos river leaves the hills. In the neighbourhood of the Bhután range, for from five to ten miles before reaching

the hills, the land rises gradually. In this tract the soil is only from three to four feet deep, with a substratum of gravel and shingle; and in the dry season the beds of the streams for some miles after leaving the hills are dry, the water reappearing farther down.

The only mountainous tract in the District is that portion of the Bhután range in the immediate neighbourhood of the military outpost of Baxá, near the northern boundary line of the District, which is marked by the Sinchulá Hills, a range varying from 4000 to a little over 6000 feet in height. Baxá, on one of the principal routes into Bhután, is itself situated on a lower range of hills varying from 1659 to 2457 feet in height.

The principal rivers in the District, proceeding from west to east, are the Mahánandá, Karátoyá, Tístá, Jáldhaká, Duduyá, Mujnái, Torshá, Káljaní, Ráidhak, and Sankos—all of which see separately. These rivers are nearly all navigable by boats of between 3 and 4 tons burden for a considerable portion of their course, but in the upper portion of the Dwárs Sub-division, navigation is impeded by rapids; and, as already stated, owing to the porous nature of the soil near the hills, the beds of the rivers in this tract are without water in the dry season for some few miles after debouching upon the plains. The rivers all flow down from the hills in a southerly direction; they are constantly changing their main channels, and the country is everywhere seamed by deserted river beds.

The Government forest reserves in the Western Dwárs Sub-division cover a total area of 428½ square miles. In Jalpáiguri Sub-division, the only forest tract is a valuable private estate known as the Baikunthpur jungle, from which a considerable quantity of *sál* timber is floated down the Tístá. The large area of pasturage in the Western Dwárs affords grazing ground to immense herds of cattle and buffaloes which are annually driven up from Bengal. The only mineral of importance is limestone, which is largely quarried in the shape of calcareous tufa along the base of the Bhután Hills. A small copper mine also exists near Baxá. The large game found in the District are wild elephants and *mithun* or wild cattle, found only close to the hills; and rhinoceros, buffaloes, tigers, leopards, bears, wild hog, deer, etc. Among the smaller animals are fallow-deer, hog-deer, antelope, hares, foxes, porcupines, wild cats, jackals, and monkeys. The principal game birds are pea-fowl, floriken, wild ducks, teal, red and black partridges, quail, snipe, golden plover, etc. Fish abound in the rivers.

History.—The District of Jalpáigurí first came into existence in the year 1869, when the Titályá Sub-division of Rangpur was incorporated with the Western Dwárs, and erected into an independent revenue unit. The criminal jurisdiction alone had been assigned to the Deputy Com-

missioner of the Western Dwárs two years before; the civil jurisdiction was not finally transferred till 1870.

The permanently settled portion of Jalpáigurí has no history of its own, apart from that of the parent District of Rangpur. Its boundaries are perplexingly intermingled with those of the Native State of Kuch Behar, from which it was conquered by the Muhammadans in comparatively recent times. At the present day, by far the wealthiest landowners are the Mahárájá of Kuch Behar himself, and the Ráikat of Baikunthpur, who is descended from a younger branch of the Kuch Behar family. This tract is administered in accordance with the ordinary Regulations and Acts in force throughout Bengal.

The Western Dwárs became British territory as the result of the war with Bhután in 1864-65. That war had been provoked by the gross insults offered to a British ambassador by the Bhutiá Government in 1863. As no apologies were offered, it was resolved forthwith to effect by force of arms the permanent annexation of the Dwárs; by which step a command would be gained over the hill passes, and a race closely allied with the people of Bengal would be delivered from Bhutiá anarchy. Accordingly, in December 1864, four strong military columns made a simultaneous advance, and occupied the Dwárs and the hill posts above, after slight opposition. But in the beginning of 1865, the Bhutiás recovered heart. They threatened in force the whole line of British outposts, and drove away the garrison at Díwángirí with the loss of two mountain guns. The abandoned post was speedily recovered; and before the close of the year, the Bhutiás consented to accept the terms of peace which had been offered to them before the outbreak of hostilities, and, in addition, to surrender the two guns they had captured. By this treaty the Dwárs were ceded in perpetuity to the British Government; and an annual allowance of £2500 was granted to Bhután, which sum has now been increased to £5000. Since that date our relations with Bhután have been peaceful, and the frontier raids, which were previously of common occurrence, have altogether ceased.

The newly-acquired territory was immediately formed into the two Districts of the Eastern and Western Dwárs, of which the former has been since incorporated with the Assam District of Goálpárá. In 1867, the Dálingkot Sub-division of the Western Dwárs, which lies high up among the mountains, was annexed to Dárjíling; and the remainder, as already mentioned, was formed into the new District of Jalpáigurí, with the addition of a portion taken from the unwieldy jurisdiction of Rangpur. The Dwárs are still administered in a provisional manner, being reckoned as a non-Regulation tract. The entire soil is held *khás*, or under direct Government management, temporary settlements being made with the actual cultivators; and a large portion has been reserved

by the Forest Department. Great tenderness has been shown in all dealings with the aboriginal population. A careful record was made of all rights and interests in the land at the time of the settlement in 1870, when an enumeration of the people and houses was also conducted. Cultivation is now rapidly extending through the Dwárs, wherever practicable; and, as will be presently shown, the introduction of the tea-plant has opened out a new source of prosperity. It is believed that the population has more than doubled during the twenty years which have elapsed since British annexation. From motives of precaution, a regiment of Native infantry is stationed in permanent cantonments at the hill pass of Baxá.

Population.—Prior to 1881, no synchronous Census of the entire District was made in Jalpáigurí; the enumeration in 1872 was confined to the permanently settled part of the District, the Settlement Officer's estimate of the population of the Western Dwárs in 1870 being accepted. These figures made up a total population in 1872 of 418,665. In 1881, a simultaneous enumeration over the whole District disclosed a total population of 581,562, the increase amounting to 162,897, or 38·9 per cent., in the nine years. Although there can be no doubt that a very large portion of this reported increase is due to deficiencies in the previous enumeration and estimate, it is certain that a considerable portion represents a real advance in the population. The spread of tea cultivation of late years has attracted much European capital and native labour to the Western Dwárs Sub-division. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881, may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 2884 square miles; number of villages, 971; houses, 98,101, of which 94,795 were occupied and 3306 unoccupied. Population, 581,562, namely, 305,555 males and 276,007 females. Average density of population, 201·65 per square mile, varying from 60·23 in the Western Dwárs or Alípur Sub-division, to 343·41 in the head-quarters Sub-division. Number of villages per square mile, ·34; persons per village, 955; houses per square mile, 34·02; persons per house, 6·13. It seems probable that, when railway communication is completed during the next few years between Jalpáigurí and the overcrowded Districts of Behar, a considerable influx of population will set in toward the Dwárs. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—102,230 males and 95,479 females; total children, 197,709, or 34 per cent. of the total population. As regards religion, Hindus numbered 367,891, or 63·3 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 208,513, or 35·8 per cent.; Buddhists, 486; Jains, 6; Christians, 159; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 4507. The great bulk of the population belongs to the semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribe known as Koch or Rájbansí, which numbers 208,322 in the permanently settled tract, and is

ascertained to form as much as two-thirds of the total inhabitants in the Western Dwárs. To these figures there ought to be added a large proportion of those returned in the Census Report as Musalmáns, who are known historically to be of Koch descent. The head-quarters of this race are in the adjoining State of Kuch Behar; but Kochs, Rájbansís, or Palís are thickly scattered through all Northern Bengal, from Assam to the frontier of Purniah. Aboriginal tribes include Uráons and Mechs. Their numbers are not returned separately in the Census Report, but the latter race is strongly represented in the Dwárs, where they constitute about one-ninth of the population. They are identical with the Assam tribe of Cacharis, and probably connected with the Kochs. Their mode of agriculture is that known as *júm*, which consists in burning down a fresh patch of jungle land every year; on these clearings, rice, cotton, and mustard are grown together, the only agricultural implement used being the *dáo* or hill knife. Of the Hindus proper, the most numerous caste is that of the low caste of Tiors, numbering 35,896, and Bagdís, who form the great majority of the labourers on the tea gardens, 24,527. Bráhmans numbered 3909; Rájputs, 1269; Káyasths, 3782; Baniyás, 2672; Kaibarttás, 5838; and Tántís, 5453. The Muhammadans are classified according to sect into Sunnís, 189,441; Shiás, 6828; and unspecified, 12,244. The Christians include 81 Europeans, 2 Australians, 14 Eurasians, and 62 natives of India and 'others.' Vaishnavs and other caste-rejecting Hindus numbered 3448. The Bráhma Samáj is represented by about 20 members, who meet regularly at Jalpáigurí town.

The population is of a purely rural character. There is only one town with upwards of 5000 inhabitants, and even trading villages are few. The only places worth mention are JALPAIGURI town on the Tístá river, with a population in 1881 of 7936, which is distinguished from other villages merely by the civil offices; the prosperous mart of Baurá, also on the Tístá; the military outpost of BAXA, half-way up the Sinchulá mountains; and the widespread ruins of the city of Prithu Rájá, one of the fabled monarchs of the early kingdom of Kámrúp. Small forts, temples, and tanks, built by Hindus or Muhammadans, abound in the south-western corner of the District, which formed, two centuries ago, the extreme limit of the Mughal Empire. Of the 971 villages comprising the District, 195 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 345 from two to five hundred; 245 from five hundred to a thousand; 174 from one to two thousand; 11 from two to three thousand; and 1 upwards of five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the male population are returned under the following six classes:—(1) Professional, including military and civil officials, and the learned professions, 4811; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 9559; (3) commercial class,

including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 14,260; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 146,574; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, artisans, etc., 14,161; (6) indefinite and unspecified, comprising general labourers and male children, 116,190.

Material Condition of the People.—The people of Jalpáigurí District are well off, happy, and contented. The necessaries of life are cheap and easily procurable; and the means of gaining a livelihood by agriculture is open to all. There is abundance of rich soil, especially in the Western Dwárs, still easily reclaimable; and as the rents are very light, the prosperous condition of the people naturally follows. The ordinary dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper generally consists of a waistcloth (*dhutí*), with a cotton sheet or shawl (*chádár*), when at home; with the addition, when visiting friends or places of public resort, of a coat (*chapkán* or *pirán*), a turban or cap, and a pair of shoes. The dress of a well-to-do husbandman or landholder (*jotdár*) is similar to the above. The clothing of an ordinary peasant, who cultivates his holding with his own hands, consists, while engaged in field work, of simply a narrow strip of cloth round the loins (*nangti*); but when making a visit or attending market, he wears a waistcloth and cotton shawl. The houses are generally built on supports of bamboos or wooden posts, well thatched with grass on a framework of bamboo or reeds; the walls are of bamboo mats, reeds, or grass, generally plastered over with mud, the different parts of the house being tied together with string or rattan. A shopkeeper has usually two or three rooms in his house, with a verandah, and a small out-house for cooking and storing his grain. A peasant's dwelling generally consists of two rooms, but the homestead of a well-to-do *jotdár* often contains as many as ten or twelve separate huts within an enclosure.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop in all parts of the District. Of the total food supply, the *áman* or *haimantik* rice, sown on low-lying lands and reaped in winter, forms from 60 to 75 per cent.; the remainder is made up by the *áus* or *bhadai* rice, sown on high lands and reaped in September; and by wheat and barley. Mustard seed is extensively grown throughout the District; cotton is the export staple of the Dwárs, jute and tobacco of the Regulation tract. Manure, in the form of cow-dung, is used by the cultivators for special crops, the quantity being determined by the number of cattle that they own. Irrigation is commonly practised in the Western Dwárs. *Aman* rice land is never suffered to lie fallow, but the peasants recognise that the other crops grow better if the soil enjoys an occasional rest. There is still spare land uncultivated even in the Regulation tract; and in the Western Dwárs it has been estimated that about three-fourths of the land now waste is capable of cultivation. The average produce of paddy [illegible] rice [illegible]

acre of land is about 22 cwt., worth locally from £2, 10s. to £4. In the Dwárs, the rent of rice land varies from 1s. to 6s. per acre; in the remainder of the District, from 2s. to 7s. 6d. Jute land lets at somewhat higher rates. The land in the Western Dwárs is managed as the immediate property of Government; in the Regulation tract, the *zamíndárs* are the proprietors, subject only to the payment of a fixed revenue. But the subordinate tenures in either case are much the same. First comes the *jotdár*, who usually possesses a permanent interest in his farm, and has under-tenants called *chukánidárs* or *mulándárs*. The actual cultivator is the *prajá*, who has no rights in the soil, but is allowed to retain a share of the produce. It has been the object of the recent settlement in the Western Dwárs to fix the relative positions of these several parties.

The rate of wages in Jalpáiguri are somewhat arbitrary, as the majority of the day-labourers are immigrants from Chutiá Nágpur or Nepál. The ordinary wages of labourers are 6d. a day, or from 10s. to 12s. a month; skilled workmen earn from £1 to £2 a month. These rates are considerably higher than used to be paid before the Bhután war of 1864. The prices of food-grains appear to have considerably more than doubled of late years. In 1860, common rice fetched from 1s. 4d. to 1s. 8d. per cwt.; by 1870, the price had risen to 4s. 1d.; and by 1882–83 to 5s. 4d., the average rate for the five years preceding 1882–83 being 7s. per cwt.

The calamities of flood or drought are almost unknown in the District, and a general destruction of the crops from such a cause has never occurred. Scarcity elsewhere only affects Jalpáiguri by stimulating the exportation of grain, and thus raising the market prices. In the improbable event of a local scarcity, the inhabitants of the Dwárs could fall back upon the wild produce of the jungle; while those in the settled tract have now been saved from the danger of isolation by the proximity of the Northern Bengal State Railway. If the price of rice were to rise in January, after the harvesting of the *áman* crop, to 10s. per cwt., it should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Tea.—The soil and climate of the Western Dwárs have proved extremely suitable for the tea plant. The cultivation and manufacture of tea has made rapid progress of late years, and the industry is now established on a secure basis. In 1876–77, the total number of plantations was 13, covering an area of 818 acres, and yielding 29,520 lbs. of tea. By 1882, the number of gardens at work was 60, with 4670 acres under mature, and 3598 acres under immature plants. Total out-turn in 1882, 1,865,801 lbs.; average out-turn, 399 lbs. per acre of mature plants. The gardens are situated at an elevation of from 250 to 1500 feet. The chief requisite for a large development of the tea industry in the Western Dwárs is improved communications, and many

planters have freely subscribed to the construction of roads. The state of the roads, and deficiency of means of communication, can only be realized by travelling through the north-eastern part of the District. British capital has flowed rapidly into tea cultivation in that tract, but it has had to encounter great difficulties, from the poverty of the local road-funds, which it is hoped that the Government will before long remove. Jalpáigurí District has important advantages over the neighbouring Districts of Assam for the purposes of tea cultivation, as the labour supply finds its way freely into it, without being placed under the surveillance of the law. More restrictions have been found necessary to ensure the health and safety of coolies on the longer journey to Assam, and to protect them in their new and often isolated homes. The comparative nearness of Jalpáigurí to the labour-yielding Districts of Chutiá Nágpur enables the coolies to make the journey in small parties of 20 to 150, by foot or by rail, under native head-men, and without the intervention of European agency or of legislative safeguards for their recruitment and transit. Jalpáigurí District does not therefore come under the operation of the Labour Transport or internal Emigration Acts. The railway which intersects the District still further simplifies the problems of immigration.

Manufactures, etc.—No special native industries have been developed in Jalpáigurí. Among the lower classes, and especially with the aboriginal tribes, the scanty garments are woven by members of the household, who also build their own dwellings and make their own agricultural implements. Of late years trade has been stimulated by the demand for agricultural produce from the south, and by the institution of fairs on the Bhután frontier. The chief exports are jute, tobacco, timber, tea, and a little rice. The imports are piece-goods, salt, and betel-nuts. The tobacco trade is concentrated at the busy mart of Baurá, on the Tístá, whence the produce is despatched down the river to the emporia of Sirájganj, Náráyanganj, Mánikganj, and Goálandá. Baurá can be reached by large boats of from 30 to 40 tons burden all the year round. Jalpáigurí town, higher up the same river, is only accessible by such vessels during the rains. The Karátoyá is the second river in commercial importance; the chief mart on its banks is Debíganj, whence large quantities of timber are floated down into Dinájpur and Pabná. The timber-cutting is effected by the Mechs, who are very skilful at hollowing trees into canoes.

The Northern Bengal State Railway intersects the District throughout its entire length, with stations at Haldibárí, Jalpáiguri, Shikárpur, and Siligurí, whence the line is continued to Dárjíling by the narrow gauge Dárjíling and Himálayan railway. The Jalpáigurí Sub-division is well supplied with roads, some of which are maintained by the Public Works Department, while the majority are under local management.

This advantage it owes to its being on the highway both to Dárjíling and Bhután, and also to its commanding the emigration route between Behar and the Assam valley. There are no artificial canals.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Jalpáigurí District amounted to £32,994, towards which the land-tax contributed £23,983, or 72 per cent.; the net expenditure was £16,135, or just one-half the revenue. In 1881-82, the net revenue of Jalpáigurí District had increased to £50,268, of which £37,844 was derived from the land-tax. The land revenue derived from the permanently settled tract amounts to £13,675. The settlement in the Western Dwárs is made for a period of ten years with the *jotdárs* or farmers, except in the case of the Mechs, who pay a capitation tax. For police purposes, the District is divided into 8 *thánás* or police circles, with 4 outposts. In 1882, the regular police force numbered 282 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £5879. In addition, there was a rural police or village watch of 1215 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1497 officers and men, giving one man to every 1·9 square mile of the area or to every 388 persons in the population. The estimated total cost, including the rural police, which is maintained by the villagers, was £12,263, averaging £4, 5s. per square mile and 5d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons in Jalpáigurí District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 839, being 1 person to every 693 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. There is one jail in the District, at Jalpáigurí town, recently constructed in place of the old one condemned on account of its excessive unhealthiness. In 1882, the average daily number of prisoners was 101, of whom 3·5 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 97·9. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 5752 of the population.

Education encounters great difficulties in Jalpáigurí, partly owing to the circumstance that the people are not gathered into villages, but live each family in its own sequestered homestead. In 1870, the earliest year for which statistics are available, the number of schools open was 64, attended by 1372 pupils. By 1882, the inspected schools had increased to 155, and the pupils to 3582, showing 1 school to every 18·6 square miles, and 4·2 pupils to every thousand of the population. This is exclusive of uninspected schools. The Census Report of 1881 returned 5349 boys and 135 girls as under instruction, including schools not inspected, besides 12,023 males and 193 females who are able to read and write, but not under instruction.

The District is divided into 2 administrative Sub-divisions, with 8 police circles; and the Western Dwárs are again parcelled out into 11 minor divisions or *parganás*. In 1882, there were 3 civil judges and 6

stipendiary magistrates. The only municipality in the District is the municipal union of Jalpáigurí, which in 1882-83 had an income of £499, of which £447 were derived from direct taxation. Average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of municipal population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate in the vicinity of Jalpáigurí town does not materially differ from that common to Northern Bengal, except that the rainfall is heavier, and during the cold months fogs and mists are of daily occurrence. The prevailing wind is from the east. The average annual rainfall for the 12 years ending 1881 was 126·10 inches; the average temperature is about 76° F. The climate of the Western Dwárs is markedly different, especially on the lower slopes of the Bhután Hills. The hot weather here disappears altogether, and the rains last continuously from April to October. The average annual rainfall at Baxtá for the 12 years ending 1881 was returned at 219·28 inches, the temperature at 74°.

The principal diseases are malarious fevers, especially severe in the *tarái;* splenitis, enlargement of the liver, diarrhœa, and dysentery. Goitre is very common in the hilly portion of the Dwárs; and the native troops stationed at Baxá regularly suffer from scurvy, which is said to be induced by the impossibility of obtaining fresh vegetables during the prolonged rainy season. Of recent years, some very fatal outbreaks of cholera have occurred. The registered statistics (which are below the truth) show a registered death-rate during 1882 of 15·34 per thousand. There were in 1882 four charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 295 in-door and 8301 out-door patients were treated during the year. [For further information regarding Jalpáigurí, see Hunter's *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. x. pp. 215-327; the *Census Reports of Bengal* for 1872 and 1881; and the *Bengal Administration Reports.*]

Jalpáigurí.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Area, 1493 square miles; number of villages, 814; houses, 86,106. Total population (1881) 497,779, namely, 259,347 males and 238,432 females; average density of population, 333·4 per square mile; average persons per village, 611; houses per square mile, 59·70; persons per house, 5·78. Hindus numbered 300,747; Muhammadans, 196,192; Christians, 123; Buddhists, 439; Jains, 6; and aborigines, 272. This Sub-division comprises the six police circles of Jalpáigurí, Siligurí, Bodá, Pátgrám, Mainágurí, and Kairanti. In 1883 it contained [illegible] civil and 8 criminal courts; strength of regular police, 185 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 1002.

Jalpáigurí.—Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Jalpáigurí District, Bengal; situated on the west or right bank of the Tístá, in lat. 26° 32′ 20″ N., long. 88° 45′ 38″ E. Population (1881) 7936, namely, Hindus, 4245; Muhammadans, 3647; and 'others,' 44. Area of town site, 1800 acres. Formerly a cantonment for [illegible]

of Native infantry, but the military force is now withdrawn. This town has only risen into importance from the creation of the District as a separate jurisdiction in 1869, since which date its population has doubled, and its prosperity greatly increased by the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway. The town is a municipal union, and in 1882–83 had an income of £499, of which £447 were derived from direct taxation. Average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head of municipal population.

Jalpesh.—Town in the Western Dwárs, Jalpáigurí District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 31′ N., long. 88° 54′ 30″ E. Noted for its annual fair, held on the occasion of the *Siva-rátri* festival in February, at the temple of Jalpesh, which is about two hundred years old, and built on the site of a still older structure. It contains an image of the god Siva. The articles sold at the fair are chiefly cloth goods, umbrellas, hookahs, brass utensils, blankets, *ghí*, etc. This gathering lasts for ten days, and is attended by about 2000 people.

Jamálábád (or *Narasinha-angadi*).—Town in Uppinangadi *táluk*, South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 2′ N., and long. 75° 22′ E.; houses, 235. Population (1871) 1112. Not returned in the Census Report of 1881. Founded by Tipú Sultán, who encamped here when returning from Mangalore in 1784, and, noticing the strength of its situation, built and garrisoned a fortress on an almost inaccessible rock, lying to the west of the town and rising sheer from the plain. Jamálábád was destroyed by the Coorg Rájá in 1799. The garrison, however, held out for six weeks against a British force, and only surrendered after a bombardment which cut away their sole means of retreat. The commandant committed suicide. The unusual proportion of Muhammadans in the neighbouring village attests its former military occupation.

Jamalavaya Durga.—Hill in Tiruvúr Sub-division, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 57′ 22″ N., long. 80° 38′ 8″ E.; 1856 feet above sea-level.

Jamálpur.—Sub-division of Maimansingh District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 43′ to 25° 25′ 45″ N., and long. 89° 38′ to 90° 20′ 45″ E. Area, 1244 square miles; towns and villages, 1879; houses, 65,402. Population (1872) 414,469; (1881) 497,766, namely, males 255,010, and females 242,756. Increase of population in nine years, 83,297, or 20·10 per cent. Average density of population, 400 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·5; persons per village, 265; houses per square mile, 63; persons per house, 7·6. According to religion, Muhammadans numbered 381,572, or 76·6 per cent.; Hindus, 110,740, or 22·3 per cent.; Christians, 12; non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 5442. This Sub-division comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Jamálpur, Sherpur, and Díwánganj. In 1883, it contained a deputy magistrate

and deputy collector's court and 2 *munsif's* courts; regular police, 79 men; village watch, 851 men.

Jamálpur.—Head-quarters town and municipality of Jamálpur Subdivision, Maimansingh District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Brahmaputra, in lat. 24° 56′ 15″ N., and long. 89° 58′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 14,727, namely, Muhammadans, 10,360; Hindus, 4366; 'other,' 1. Area of town site, 9318 acres. Gross municipal revenue (1881–82), £430, of which £413 was derived from taxation; rate of taxation, 6⅝d. per head of municipal population (15,264). Jamálpur is connected with Nasírábád (Nusseerábád), 35 miles distant, by a good road; ferry across the Brahmaputra. This town was a military station up to 1857.

Jamálpur.—Town and municipality in Monghyr District, Bengal; situated at the foot of the Monghyr Hills, in lat. 25° 18′ 45″ N., long. 86° 32′ 1″ E. Chiefly noted as containing the largest iron workshops in India, which belong to the East India Railway Company, on its loop-line, 299 miles from Calcutta, covering an area of 30 acres. These works, in addition to about 500 European workmen, employ about 3000 native labourers, and have attracted the best iron-smiths from many parts of Behar. The Company does its work through a number of native middle-men, who are paid by the piece. Population (1872) 10,453; (1881) 13,213, namely, Hindus, 9625; Muhammadans, 3038; and 'others,' 550. Area of town site, 832 acres. Municipal income in 1881–82, £1523, of which £1429 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 1⅞d. per head. Neat and substantial dwellings for the European employees and their families are laid out in streets and squares near the railway station. The native town and *bázár* is separated from the European quarter by the railway. Jamálpur contains an institute with library and reading rooms, a theatre, swimming bath, church, schools, race-course, and cricket ground, maintained or largely supported by the railway authorities. The water-supply is afforded by means of a canal cut from the base of the Monghyr Hills.

Jambu.—The northern channel leading inland from FALSE POINT anchorage, on the coast of the Bay of Bengal, Cuttack District, Orissa, Bengal. A winding stream, which renders navigation dangerous, especially during the freshes, when a strong current comes down. A bar stretches across its mouth for about three-quarters of a mile, with 1 foot of water at lowest tide; after this the channel gradually deepens to 10 feet (lowest tide), and higher up still, to 18 feet. Towards Deulpárá, some 12 or 15 miles from the mouth, the Jambu shoals and narrows to such an extent that this point becomes the safe limit of navigation for heavily laden country boats. The entire course of this channel is through a desolate country, which during floods forms one large sea or jungle-covered swamp. The Jambu is now the property of the Mahárájá of Bardwán.

this portion of the building, containing a small tank and temple, to which the image from the great Vishnu pagoda in the Srírangam island is brought for one day in the year. The hall and tank described by Mr. Fergusson are in the fourth enclosure, which measures 2436 feet by 1493; the wall surrounding it is 35 feet high and 6 feet in thickness. The fifth or outer enclosure contains 4 streets of houses; here is a small *gopura*, about sixty years old, over the western entrance.

'Several inscriptions are found in the various parts of the building; but these are of no great use from a historical point of view, as they are simply accounts of grants of land made to the pagoda from time to time, and, with a single exception, without dates. One of them, however, is stated to have been written about the year 1480 A.D.; and if this be relied on, we must conclude that the temple is nearly 400 years old.

'It appears that the Jambukeswaram pagoda had an endowment of 64 villages in 1750; in 1820, it owned only 15; in 1851, a money allowance of £945 was given to the pagoda in lieu of its lands, and this sum is now paid to the trustees every year.'—(Lewis Moore, C.S.)

Jámbulghátá.—Town in Chándá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 20° 33′ N., and long. 79° 30′ E.; 7 miles north-east of Chimúr. The market, held twice a week, is the largest in the District, the chief products sold being cotton cloth and iron. The extensive quarries of soapstone, a mile from the village, have been worked for over a hundred years; about 50 cart-loads are annually quarried and fashioned into bowls and platters. Near these quarries are others of a very fine black serpentine, where for three years Raghují III. employed 250 workmen on fixed wages for eight months in the year. With the stone he constructed a temple at Nágpur. Since his death, the quarries have fallen in, and in 1881 the village contained only 605 inhabitants. Police outpost.

Jambúr.—Village in Nanjarájpatná *táluk* of Coorg. Situated in lat. 12° 34′ N., long. 75° 53′ E. Population (1881) 172. Thirteen miles from Merkára on the Manjirábád road. Head-quarters of the Párpattigár of Gadinád. Weekly market on Thursdays. Small tomb and temple of Singaráj, one of the Rájás of Coorg. Coffee estates in the neighbourhood.

Jámbusar.—Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency; bounded on the north by the river Mahi; on the east by Baroda territory; on the south by the Dhádhar river; on the west by the Gulf of Cambay. Total area, 373 square miles. Population (1872) 93,249; (1881) 77,772, namely, 40,415 males and 37,357 females; total decrease (1872 to 1881), 15,477, or 19·9 per cent. Density of population, 208·5 per square mile. In 1881, Hindus numbered

63,882; Muhammadans, 13,036; and 'others,' 854. The Sub-division contains 1 town and 82 villages; numbers of occupied houses, 18,711; unoccupied houses, 4184: civil courts, 1; criminal courts, 2; regular police, 53 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 694; police stations (*thánás*), 1. Land revenue (1882-83), £79,479. There is a total cultivable area within the Sub-division of about 156,000 acres. Six square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated State villages. The country consists of two tracts of level land. Towards the west lies a barren plain, and in the east is a well-wooded stretch of light soil. In the latter tract are large and sweet springs, but in the former tract the water-supply is defective. Number of wells (1874), 700; tanks, 323; ploughs, 5927; carts, 5036; oxen, 17,092; cows, 2448; buffaloes, 18,645; horses, 656. The staple crops are *jodr* (Sorghum vulgare), *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), wheat, and miscellaneous crops of pulses, peas, tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The average annual rainfall is 23·5 inches.

Jámbusar.—Chief town and municipality of the Jámbusar Sub-division of Broach District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 3′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 51′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 14,924; (1881) 11,479, namely, 5925 males and 5554 females. Of the total population in 1881, 8741 were Hindus, 2379 Muhammadans, 129 Jains, 1 Christian, 16 Pársís, and 213 'others.' Area of town, 348 acres; persons per acre, 32. Municipal revenue (1882-83), £664; municipal expenditure, £595; rate of taxation, 1s. 6d. per head of municipal population. In former times, when Tankáriá, 10 miles south-west of Jámbusar, was a port of but little less consequence than Broach, Jámbusar itself enjoyed a considerable trade. Indigo was then the chief export. Of late years, since the opening of the railway (1861), the traffic by sea at Tankáriá has much fallen off. On the other hand, Jámbusar is only 18 miles distant from the Pálej station, on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; and as roads have recently been made connecting Jámbusar both with Pálej and Broach (27 miles), a traffic by land has to some extent taken the place of the old sea-borne trade. It is in contemplation to connect Broach and Jámbusar by rail. In preparing cotton for export, 3 ginning factories were employed here in 1874. Tanning, the manufacture of leather, and calico printing are carried on to a small extent, and there are also manufactures of ivory, armlets, and toys. In 1880-81 the imports were valued at £21,115, and the exports at £125,419. Jámbusar has a subordinate judge's court, post-office, and dispensary. The town was first occupied by the British in 1775, and remained in their possession until 1783, when it was restored to the Maráthás. Under the treaty of Poona (1817), it was finally surrendered to the British. To the north of the town is a lake of considerable size sacred to Nágeswar, the snake-god, with

richly-wooded banks, and in the centre of the water a small island about 40 feet in diameter, overgrown with mango and other trees. The water-supply is chiefly derived from this tank. In the town is a strong native-built fort, erected by Mr. Callender when Jámbusar was held by the British from 1775 to 1783. This fort furnishes accommodation for the treasury, the civil courts, and other Government offices.

Jámbva.—River of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. The Jámbva or Jámbuva rises near Devalia in Jarod Sub-division of Baroda State, runs a course of 25 miles past the palace of Makarpura, near the hunting grounds of the Gáekwár, and terminates near Khalipur. Two stone bridges have been thrown across it; one at Kelanpur on the Baroda-Dabhoi road, the other near Makarpura.

James and Mary Sands.—Shifting and dangerous alluvial deposits formed in the channel of the Húglí, by the meeting of the backwater of the Rúpnáráyan with the discharge of the Dámodar. Both of these last-named rivers enter the Húglí at sharp angles from the west; the Dámodar nearly opposite Faltá, about 27 miles by water from Calcutta, and the Rúpnáráyan, opposite Húglí point, 33 miles down the river from Calcutta. The James and Mary Sands stretch more or less completely up the Húglí channel throughout the six miles between the mouths of these two rivers; although the name is sometimes appropriated to the more southern portion of the shoals. The mouth of the Dámodar river is situated in lat. 22° 17′ N., and long 88° 7′ 30″ E., and that of the Rúpnáráyan in lat. 22° 12′ N., and long. 88° 3′ E.

These fatal sands have long been a terror to seamen, and still form the most dangerous obstacle in the navigation of the Húglí. The name was commonly supposed to be a corruption of the Bengalí words *jál-márí*, 'The Waters of Death.' But Sir George Birdwood has discovered in the India Office MSS. the following entry:—'The *Royal James and Mary* [James II. and Mary of Modena] arrived in Balasore Roads from the west coast in August, with a cargo of redwood, candy, and pepper, which she had taken up in Madras. Coming up the river Húglí on the 24th of September 1694, she fell on a sandbank on this side Tumbolee Point, and was unfortunately lost, being immediately overset, and broke her back, with the loss of four or five men's lives.' 'Tumbolee Point' is shown in the chart of 1745 at the north entrance to the Rúpnáráyan river. It is now called Mornington Point. The wreck of this *Royal James and Mary* was the origin of the name of the sandbank, and shows that it was a dangerous obstruction to navigation as far back as 1694.

How its dangers were subsequently increased by the opening of the new mouth of the Dámodar will be presently mentioned. The sharp angle at which the Rúpnáráyan enters the Húgli, opposite Húglí Point, would alone suffice to check the current of the main stream of the

larger river, and to cause a deposit of its silt. It is probable, therefore, that, independently of the discharge of the Dámodar by its new mouth, 6 miles above the Rúpnáráyan *debouchure*, dangerous sandbanks had existed from a remote period in this section of the Húglí river. The sandbanks apparently spread upwards during the first half of the 18th century; that is to say, during the period when the main body of the Dámodar waters was gradually forcing its way southwards to the new Dámodar mouth opposite Faltá. But the above entry in the 'Consultations' for 1694 prove that this section of the Húglí was a dangerous one at the end of the 17th century.

The records of the Calcutta Bankshall or Port Office commence in 1768, and they speak of the James and Mary Sands as an existing shoal without any reference to their having been recently formed. The proximate cause of their deposit is supposed to have been the shifting of the course of the Dámodar river. The nearly right angle at which the Rúpnáráyan enters the Húglí would, as above mentioned, have sufficed to check the flow of the Húglí current, and lead to a deposit of silt. But when the Dámodar river changed its course, and forced its way into the Húglí, also nearly at a right angle, and only 6 miles above the mouth of the Rúpnáráyan, a double and an aggravated process of shoaling took place. The James and Mary Sands are the result.

This change in the course of the Dámodar was going on probably throughout the first half of the 18th century. Formerly, the Dámodar entered the Húglí at Nayá Sarái, about 8 or 10 miles above Húglí town. A branch, or tidal channel from the Dámodar, still marks this old course of the river. The Dámodar was, under the Muhammadan Government, confined to that old course by a series of embankments, which counteracted the natural tendency of the river to straighten itself out to the southwards. But the main body of the Dámodar gradually broke through its embankments, and found its way southward to its present point of *debouchure* into the Húglí about 62 miles by the river below its old entrance at Nayá Sarái. The result was two-fold: first, a deterioration of the upper part of the river which had formerly been fed by the old Dámodar; and second, the aggravation of the James and Mary Sands already formed by the junction of the Rúpnáráyan and the Húglí.

The period at which this change took place is not fixed. But a clear tradition of it existed among the European inhabitants of Calcutta in the beginning of the present century; and the change is attested by early maps which mark the 'Old Dámodar' as entering the Húglí at Náya Sarái. The probability is that the change gradually went on during a number of years, and that its effects were distinctly felt by the Calcutta merchants in the last half of the past century. The deterioration of the upper part of the river above Calcutta, has been

strongly marked since 1757, when Admiral Watson's 64-gun ship sailed up to Chandarnagore, and when the French Company's ships of 600 and 800 tons are said to have laid off that port. The deterioration of the lower part of the river, represented by the James and Mary Sands, although undoubted, has been by no means so well marked. On the one hand, it must be remembered that, in former times, ships of 700 tons usually, or almost invariably, remained at Diamond Harbour below these shoals. On the other hand, it should also be stated that the reason for this was not necessarily the shallowness but the narrowness of the channel, which rendered it difficult for sailing vessels to tack. We know that in 1801, the *Countess of Sutherland*, a ship of 1445 tons old measurement, was launched above Calcutta, and sailed down the river.

Various projects have been proposed to enable ships to avoid this dangerous shoal. About 1821–22, a plan was under discussion for cutting a ship canal from above Faltá to Diamond Harbour, so as to escape the James and Mary shoals. In 1839, a prospectus of a larger undertaking, a Diamond Harbour and Calcutta Railway Company, was issued by Captain Boileau of the Bengal Engineers, with a view to avoid the James and Mary and other shoals in the course of the Húglí. These schemes were not carried out; and in 1853, statements were placed before the Government, pointing to a serious deterioration in the navigable capacity of the Húglí. The Calcutta Chamber of Commerce called the attention of Government to the 'difficult and dangerous state of the river Húglí, which threatens at no distant period to render access to the port of Calcutta altogether impracticable for any vessels but those of the smallest tonnage.' The Marquis of Dalhousie accordingly issued a Commission, which, after examining evidence extending from 1804 to 1854, reported in the latter year. All agreed that the James and Mary shoals were among the worst and most dangerous in the river; but great difference of opinion existed as to their increasing deterioration of late years. Out of twenty-three experts, fifteen considered that there was, on the whole, no change for the worse; and eight bore witness to a marked deterioration. The same uncertainty still exists among the experts of the river. Since the Húglí Commission reported, two lines of railway have been made respectively to Diamond Harbour, and to Port Canning on the Matlá river. Both of these railways avoid the dangers of the James and Mary, and other obstacles between those shoals and Calcutta; and indeed Port Canning was founded at a large expense on the Matlá with this view. But neither of these two railways has attracted any share of the commerce of Calcutta, and vessels drawing up to 26 feet still pass up and down the river.

The James and Mary Sands have two channels named respectively

the Eastern and the Western Gut. The following description of them is taken from the Húglí Commission's Report of 1854; but it will be superseded before long by a survey of the Húglí river, now under preparation by Captain Petley, R.N., Deputy-Conservator of the Port of Calcutta. The Eastern Gut 'lies close along the left bank of the river,' the Western Gut 'along the right bank. As a rule, these channels have never good water at the same time, but close and open alternately, according to the season of the year. Some of the witnesses, however, speak to one or two years within their experience when the two channels were open together, but with bad water in both. The Eastern Gut is opened by the freshes of the wet season, when the flood-tides are weak, and the united waters of the Dámodar and Húglí direct the force of the strong ebb-tides down the left bank of the latter river. The free flow of the current on the opposite or western bank, being impeded by the rush of water below from the Rúpnáráyan almost at right angles, silt is deposited, and the Western Gut fills up. The latter channel, on the other hand, is reopened by the strong flood-tides of the south-west monsoon, when the Makripatti Lumps, joining on to the Húglí sand, form a bar across, and close the south entrance of the Eastern Gut. The Western Gut is subject to continual fluctuations as to the position of the best water, and both channels show most important differences in soundings at similar periods, in different years.' Such was the general course of the fluctuations of the James and Mary Sands up to the date of the Húglí River Committee in 1854. For their more recent history, we must await Captain Petley's survey.

The dangers of the James and Mary Sands add materially to the charges on ships coming up the Húglí. An establishment for watching the constantly shifting channels has to be maintained. The perils of the passage through these shoals have also to be considered in the charge for pilotage. The evil reputation which the James and Mary give the river has seriously affected the rates of insurance on ships entering or departing from Calcutta. Examples of recent wrecks have been given in article HUGLI RIVER.

Jámi.—Town in Srungavarapukota *táluk* of Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated on the Gostháni river, in lat. 18° 3′ N., and long. 83° 18′ E. Houses, 1228. Population (1871) 6088; (1881) 5029, of whom 4962 were Hindus and 67 Muhammadans. Area, 3289 acres. Jámi was formerly the head-quarters of a *táluk*. Indigo factory.

Jámíra.—One of the tidal estuaries by which the waters of the Ganges merge into the sea, in the Sundarbans, Bengal; between the Matlá and the Húglí rivers, and flowing through dense jungle. Lat. 21° 36′ N., and long. 88° 31′ E.

Jám-jo-Tando, also called *Tando Jám*.—Town and municipality in the Haidarábád *táluk* of Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 25° 25′ 30″ N., long. 68° 34′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 1897; (1881) 2072. The Muhammadans are chiefly of the Nizámáni, Sayyid, and Kháskeli tribes; the Hindus principally Lohános. Municipal income (1882–83), £124; expenditure, £93; incidence of taxation, 1s. per head. Founded by the Tálpur dynasty, and now the residence of the Khánáni branch of the Tálpur Mírs. Jám-jo-Tando lies on the main road, leading from Haidarábád, *viâ* Alahyar-jo-Tando, to Mirpur Khás, ten miles south-west of Haidarábád. There is a vernacular school. The term *Tando* means a town or village founded by a Bilúch chief.

Jamkhandi.—Native State under the Political Agency of Kolhápur and the South Maráthá *jágírs*, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 26′ to 16° 47′ N., and long. 75° 7′ to 75° 37′ E. Area, 492 square miles. Population (1872) 102,346; (1881) 83,917, namely, 41,495 males and 42,422 females; total decrease in nine years, 18,429, or 18 per cent.; density of population, 170·6 persons per square mile; revenue (1881–82), £35,622; expenditure, £35,169. Of the population in 1881, 73,910, or 88 per cent., were Hindus; 7628, or 9 per cent., Muhammadans; and 2379 'others.' Number of towns, 1; villages, 80; occupied houses, 14,890; unoccupied houses, 2902. A soft stone of superior quality is found near the village of Marigudi. Products of the State are — cotton, wheat, the ordinary varieties of pulse and millet. Manufactures — coarse cotton cloth and native blankets, for home consumption. In 1882–83 there were 24 schools, including 1 English school; besides 30 indigenous schools: total number of scholars, 1229. The chief, Rámchandra Ráo Gopál, or Apá Sáhib Patwardhan, a Bráhman by caste, ranks as a first-class chief of the South Maráthá country. For purposes other than military, he maintains a retinue of 57 horse and 852 foot soldiers; and he pays to the British Government a tribute of £2084. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The chief has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The survey has been at work in the State since 1881–82. Until lately communications were backward; in 1881–82, however, £1800 was spent on their improvement.

Jamkhandi.—Chief town of the State of Jamkhandi, South Maráthá *jágírs*, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 30′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 22′ E.; 70 miles north-east of Belgáum, 68 miles east of Kolhápur, and 162 miles south-east by south of Poona. Population (1872) 12,493; (1881) 10,409, namely, Hindus, 8460; Muhammadans, 1921; and Jains, 28. Jamkhandi is a municipality, with an income of about £700.

Jamkhher.—Sub-division of Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency; situated to the south-east of Ahmadnagar city, and east of the

Sina river, indenting into and intermixed with the Nizam's Dominions. The largest compact portion lies in lat. 18° 33′ 40″ to 18° 52′ 20″ N., and long. 75° 11′ 20″ to 75° 35′ E. Area, 482 square miles; contains 1 town and 74 villages, with 11,217 houses. Population (1872) 72,994; (1881) 60,960, namely, 30,925 males and 30,035 females; decrease in nine years, 12,034, or 16·5 per cent. In 1881, Hindus numbered 55,953; Muhammadans, 3196; 'others,' 1811; density of population, 126·5 per square mile. Land revenue (1882-83), £9786. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police stations (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 36 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 237. The chief town of the Jamkhher Sub-division is KHARDA.

Jámki.—Town in the Siálkot *tahsíl* of Siálkot District, Punjab; situated 4 miles north-west of Daska, in lat. 32° 23′ N., long. 74° 26′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 4157, namely, Hindus, 2207; Muhammadans, 1609; and Sikhs, 341. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1881-82 of £229; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2d. per head of population. Said to have been colonized about 500 or 600 years by one Jám, a Chúná Ját from Sahuwála, assisted by a Khattri named Pindí. It was originally called Pindí Jám, afterwards changed to Jámki. An extensive trade in sugar is carried on.

Jámli.—Village of Jhábua State, Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. A considerable village, distant from Sardárpur 24 miles north, and from Jhábua city 30 miles north-east. The residence of a *Thákur*, one of the *Umráos*; his income is £400, and he pays an annual tribute of £100 to the Indore Darbár.

Jammalamadúgú (lit. the 'Pool of Rushes').—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 36′ to 15° 5′ N., and long. 78° 7′ to 78° 32′ 30″ E. It is bounded on the north by Kurnool (Karnúl) District, west by Bellary District; on the south and east by the Pulivendla and Proddotúr *táluks*. Area, 616 square miles. Population (1881) 91,958; living in 1 town and 126 villages; number of houses, 18,918; density of population, 149 per square mile. Hindus numbered 82,910; Muhammadans, 7253; and Christians, 1795. Since 1871 the population has decreased 17 per cent., due to the famine which devastated Southern India in 1876-78.

Two hill ranges intersect the *táluk*, but in no place attain an elevation of more than 1000 feet, and are bare of vegetation. The greater part of the *táluk* is drained by a stream formed by the junction of the Pennair and Chitraváti. The Pennair and Chitraváti join near Gundloor, and then pass through the precipitous gorges of Gandikota. The soil is of the kind called 'black cotton' soil. As irrigation is little resorted to, the crops raised are mostly 'dry' crops. *Cholam* and cotton are the staples grown, the latter being

largely exported to Madras; miscellaneous crops are indigo, gram, and oil-seed. The number of tanks was, in 1875, 30; land cultivated with 'wet' crops or those depending on irrigation, 2690 acres. Water is deficient in the *táluk.* Inundations of the Pennair and Chitraváti, however, occur. In 1851, a flood swept away the village of Chautapalli at the confluence of the rivers. The *táluk* is ill supplied with roads, particularly in the southern corner of it. Altogether there were only 35 miles of road in 1875. The Madras Railway, north-west line, crosses the Chitraváti on a wrought-iron viaduct within the *táluk.* The viaduct has 40 arches of 70 feet span. There are two railway stations within the *táluk,* at Muddnúr and at Condapúr. Condapúr is 14 miles from Jammalamadúgú, the chief town of the *táluk.* About 7 miles of the Madras Irrigation Company's Canal cross the north-east corner. Traffic is mostly carried on by means of pack-bullocks. The *táluk* in 1883 contained 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 63 men. Land revenue, £21,025.

The natural fortress of Gandikota, and the fort of Jammalamadúgú at the passage of the Pennair near Muddnúr, are two remarkable places in the *táluk.* Fort Gandikota overhangs the Pennair from a scarped rock 300 feet above the water. Innumerable stone steps lead to the mingled bastions and temples which crown the summit. Fort Gandikota was the key to the valley of the Pennair.

Jammalamadúgú.—Chief town of the Jammalamadúgú *táluk* or Sub-division of Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 51′ N., long. 78° 28′ E. Population (1871) 4835; (1881) 4846, namely, 2382 males, 2464 females. Of the total population in 1881, 3600 were Hindus, 1241 Muhammadans, and 5 Christians. Area of town site, 3391 acres. The town contains a Government school, and a mission attached to the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. Police station. Jammalamadúgú is a busy centre of trade, with large exports of indigo and cotton. A small cloth manufacture is carried on. The business season is from March to May. The Car festival of Nárápu-ramswámi is held in May; about 3000 visitors attend.

Jammu (*Jamú, Jummoo*).—Province and town in Kashmír State, Punjab. Population (1873) 41,817. No regular Census was taken of Kashmir in 1881. Situated in lat. 32° 43′ 52″ N., and long. 74° 54′ 14″ E., on the Távi, a tributary of the Chenab, among the mountains of the outer Himálayan range. The people are, as a rule, Hindus. The town and palace stand upon the right bank of the river; the fort overhangs the left or eastern shore at an elevation of 150 feet above the stream. The lofty whitened walls of the palace and citadel present a striking appearance from the surrounding country. An adjacent height [illegible] mands the fortress, rendering it untenable against modern [illegible]

Extensive and handsome pleasure-grounds. Ruins of great size in the suburbs attest the former prosperity of the city. Once the seat of an independent Rájput dynasty, whose dominions extended into the plains, and included the modern District of Siálkot. It was afterwards conquered by the Sikhs, and formed part of Ranjít Singh's dominions. For its subsequent acquisition by Guláb Singh, see KASHMIR.

Jamna.—River of Northern India.—*See* JUMNA.

Jámnagar.—State in Bombay.—*See* NAWANAGAR.

Jámner.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 32′ 30″ to 20° 52′ 20″ N., long. 75° 34′ 50″ to 76° 3′ 45″ E. Jámner Sub-division is bounded on the north by Nasírábád (Nusserábád) and Bhusáwal Sub-divisions; on the east by Berár; on the south by the Haidarábád State (the Nizam's territory); on the west by Pachora and Nasírábád. Area, 525 square miles; contains 2 towns and 156 villages, with 16,010 houses. Population (1872) 70,321; (1881) 83,535, namely, 42,779 males and 40,756 females; average density, 159 persons per square mile; increase in nine years, 13,184, or 18·7 per cent. In 1881, Hindus numbered 73,613, or 88 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 6706, or 8 per cent.; 'others,' 3216. Land revenue (1882–83), £22,376.

Most of the Sub-division of Jámner consists of a succession of rises and dips, with streams of which the banks are fringed with *babúl* groves. In the north and south-east low straggling hills covered with young teak rise out of the plain. There is a plentiful and constant supply of water. On the whole, the climate is healthy; but at the close of the rains fever and ague prevail. The rainfall averages 30 inches. The chief streams of the Sub-division are the Vághar, with its tributaries the Kág and the Súr, the Harki, and the Sonij. Most of these streams rise in the hills called Sátmálás. In addition to the rivers, there was in 1880 an additional supply of water from 1950 wells. Generally speaking, the soil is poor. There is black loam in the valleys, and on the plateaux a rich brownish mould called *káli munjal.* The Jámner Sub-division is said to have formerly belonged to the Nizám of Haidarábád, Deccan. After the battle of Kharda (Deccan), in 1795, it was ceded to the Maráthás, who subsequently made part of it over to Sindhia (Gwalior). The Jámner Sub-division came into British hands in 1818–19. The crops are—staples, *joár* (Sorghum vulgare) and *bájra* (Penicillaria spicata); miscellaneous, rice, wheat, maize, pulses, cotton, hemp, tobacco, sugar-cane, and indigo. In 1879–80, nearly forty per cent. of the cultivated area was under *joár.* The Sub-division contains 2 criminal courts and 1 police station (*thána*); regular police, 49 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 201.

Jámner.—Chief town of the Jámner Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 48′ N., and long. 75° 45′ E. Jámner lies 60 miles east by south of Dhulia. Population (1872) 5309, *namely, 4263 Hindus, 1259 Muhammadans, 99 Jains, and 84 'others.'* Area of town site, 102 acres; situated on the small river Kág. At one time surrounded with walls and protected by a fort, Jámner was a place of consequence. Its trade and manufactures have now fallen away. Outside the town is a temple to Ráma, called Rám Mandir. Also outside the town are the lines for a detachment of the Poona Horse. Post-office, Government school.

Jámni.—River of Bundelkhand, Central India, rising in lat. 24° 36′ N., and long. 78° 50′ E., in the Central Provinces. It flows northwards into Bundelkhand, whence it passes into Chanderi territory, and, after a course of about 70 miles, eventually joins the BETWA, in lat. 25° 11′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E.

Jámnia (also called *Dabir*).—A guaranteed Thákurate or chiefship under the Deputy Bhíl (Mánpur) Agency of Central India. The chief bears the title of Bhúmia of Jámnia. This chiefship, like those of Rajgarh, Garhi Bándpurha, Kothide, and Chikthiabor, is an important historical feature in the history of Málwá. The *thákurs* are all of the Bhúlála caste, said to be sprung from the intermarriage of Bhíl and Rájput. [For some general remarks on the Bhúmias, see RAJGARH.] Jámnia is the family seat from which Nadir Singh, a celebrated Bhúmia of Jámnia, made himself formidable to the surrounding country. The estate consists of 5 villages held from Sindhia under British guarantee. These villages are situated on the table-land of Málwá, and belonged formerly to the Gwalior *parganá* of Dikthan. The estate also includes Mauzá Kherí of the Hasilpur *parganá* in Málwá; Dabhar, with its six *párás* or hamlets, in Nimár; and the tract of country known as the 47 Bhíl *párás*, with Jámnia as their head-quarters. Mauzá Kherí is held from Holkár under British guarantee; Dabhar is held from Dhár; and the 47 Bhíl *párás* from the British Government, to whom the Bhúmia is responsible for the robberies that may take place. The *párás* are partly on the table-land of Málwá, and partly on the slopes of the Vindhya range. The total area of the estate is about 46,575 *bighás*, of which great part is cultivable waste. A uniform rate of Rs. 3 per plough is at present levied on all cultivation. There are 1 tank and 59 wells in the estate. Population (1879) 2388; (1881) 3205, namely, 1658 males and 1547 females. Hindus numbered 1793; Muhammadans, 198; Jain, 1; and aboriginal tribes, 1213. Number of houses, 603. Two *sawárs* and 13 *sipáhis* are employed as police. Land revenue (1881), £1600. The Mánpur-Dhár road passes through the estate for a distance of 7 [illegible] The Bhúmia of Jámnia, who has contributed to [illegible] of [illegible]

levies toll on the traffic passing over it. The present head-quarters of the estate is the village of Kunjrod.

Jamnotri.—Hot springs in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces, near the source of the Jumna. Lat. 30° 59′ N., long. 78° 35′ E. The springs occur on the sides of a massive mountain block, known as Bánderpúnch, with an elevation of 20,758 feet above sea-level. In the centre stands a lake in which the monkey-god Hanumán is said to have extinguished his flaming tail. The water rushes up through a granite rock, and deposits a chalybeate sediment. It has a temperature of 194·7° F. Elevation of the springs, 10,849 feet above the sea.

Jamod.—Town in Jalgáon *táluk* of Akola District, Berár. Lat. 21° 0′ 40″ N., long. 76° 39′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 4241; (1881) 5258. In 1881, Hindus numbered 4446; Muhammadans, 773; Sikhs, 6; and Jains, 33. Area of town site, 144 acres.

Jámpuí (or *Jámpuí Tlang*).—One of the chief ranges in Hill Tipperah, Bengal; runs directly north and south, upon long. 92° 19′ E., between the rivers Deo and Lungái, from lat. 23° 40′ to 24° 10′ N. Highest peaks—Betling Sib (formerly Sorphuel), 3200 feet above the sea; and Jámpuí, 1860 feet. The upper valleys, between the Jámpuí and other northern ranges of Hill Tipperah, are for the most part flat and covered with rank vegetation; those to the south are wild in character, and broken by numerous deep-cut ravines. Small hillocks connect the Jámpuí Hills with those of Sylhet on the north, and with the Lungtene range in Chittagong towards the south.

Jámpur.—*Tahsíl* of Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab, lying between the Indus and the Suláimán Mountains. Lat. 29° 17′ to 29° 47′ 30″ N., and long. 69° 53′ 30″ to 70° 50′ 30″ E. Area, 912 square miles, with 141 towns and villages, and 10,001 houses. Population (1881) 69,159, namely, males 38,059, and females 31,100; average density, 76 persons per square mile. Number of families, 13,501. Muhammadans numbered 61,215; Hindus, 7817; and Sikhs, 127. Of the 141 villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 102 are returned as containing less than five hundred inhabitants; 26 from five hundred to a thousand; 9 from one to two thousand; while only 4 have upwards of two thousand inhabitants. The urban population in eight municipal towns amounted to 12,610, or 19·3 per cent. of the total *tahsíl* population. Total revenue, £8597. Of a total assessed area of 414,509 acres in 1878–79, as shown in the last quinquennial agricultural statistics published by the Punjab Government, 147,694 acres were under cultivation, of which 36,197 acres were irrigated from Government works, and 4025 acres by private individuals. Of the uncultivated area, 23,144 acres were returned as grazing land, 105,136 acres as cultivable but not under cultivation, and 138,535 acres as uncultivable waste. The total

average area under crops for the five years 1877–78 was 128,051 acres, the principal crops being—*jodr*, 58,816 acres; wheat, 28,082 acres; rice, 8353 acres; *bájra*, 8242 acres; indigo, 4400 acres; and cotton, 3933 acres. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsildár*, 1 *munsif*, and 3 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 4 civil and 4 criminal courts. Number of police circles, 3; strength of regular police, 73 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 56.

Jámpur.—Chief town and head-quarters of Jámpur *tahsil* in Dera Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 29° 38′ 34″ N., and long. 70° 38′ 16″ E., in the plain, 32 miles south of Dera Ghází Khán town, on the high-road to Rájanpur and Jacobábád. Population (1881) 4697, namely, 1883 Hindus, 2791 Muhammadans, and 23 Sikhs. Founded, according to local tradition, by a Ját chief, about the 13th century. The town contains, besides the usual *tahsíli* courts, a police station, *dák* bungalow, school, dispensary, *sarái* or native inn, distillery, and municipal hall. The *bázár* is well paved and drained. Exports of indigo to Multán and Sukkur. Principal industry, wood-turning, the work being much admired. A third-class municipality, with an income in 1882–83 of £428; expenditure, £617. Average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9¾d. per head.

Jámri.—A small *zamíndári* or estate in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, lying north of the Great Eastern Road, near Sákoli. Lat. 21° 11′ 30″ N., long. 80° 5′ 30″ E. Consists of 4 small villages, with an area of 15 square miles, of which only 1 square mile is cultivated. The *zamíndár* is a Gond, and obtains a moderate income from the sale of timber. Population (1881) 571.

Jamrúd.—Fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° N., and long. 71° 24′ E., at the mouth of the Kháibar (Khyber) Pass. It was occupied by Hari Singh, Ranjít Singh's commander, in 1836; but in April 1837, Dost Muhammad sent a body of Afgháns to attack it. A battle ensued, in which the Sikhs gained a doubtful victory, with the loss of their general, Hari Singh. Elevation above sea-level, 1670 feet. During the military operations of 1878–79, Jamrúd became a place of considerable importance, as the frontier outpost on British territory towards Afghánistán; the fort has been greatly strengthened, and is now capable of accommodating a garrison of about 350 men. It is built in three tiers, the first and second being defended by strong bastions, on which guns can be mounted. The third and highest tier is at an elevation which gives an excellent command over the neighbouring country. The roof of this tier is used as a signalling station with Pesháwar.

Jámtárá.—Sub-division of Santál Parganás District, Bengal, comprising the *thána* or police circle of Jámtára. Lat. 23° 48′ 15″ to 24° 10′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 41′ to 87° 20′ 30″ E. Area, 696 square miles;

villages, 1791; houses, 22,355. Population (1881) 146,263, namely, males 73,393, and females 72,870. Average number of persons per square mile, 210; villages per square mile, 2·57; persons per village, 82; houses per square mile, 33; persons per house, 6·5. Hindus numbered 85,278, or 58·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 9432, or 6·5 per cent.; Santáls, 48,849, or 33·4 per cent.; Kols, 1364; other aboriginal tribes, 971; Christians, 60; and 'others,' 309. Jámtára contains one criminal, one subordinate judge's civil court, and one Santál civil and revenue court—all these functions being vested in the sub-divisional officer. The police force consists of 30 regular police, and 733 village *chaukídárs*.

Jamu.—Province and town of Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* JAMMU.

Jamúi.—Sub-division of Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 22′ to 25° 16′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 38′ 30″ to 86° 38′ 30″ E. Area, 1593 square miles; towns and villages, 2441; houses, 86,859. Population (1872) 525,829; (1881) 551,972, of whom 491,839 were Hindus; 54,499 Muhammadans; 139 Christians; 'others,' consisting of Santáls and Kols still following their aboriginal faiths, 5495. Number of males, 275,733, and females, 276,239. Proportion of males, 49·9 per cent.; density of population, 346 per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·53; persons per village, 226; houses per square mile, 57; inmates per house, 6·3. This Sub-division comprises the 4 police circles of Shaikhpurá, Sikandra, Jamúi, and Chakái. Number of courts (1883), 3; regular police force, 86 men; rural police, 1126 men.

Jamúi.—Head-quarters of Jamúi Sub-division, Monghyr District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 55′ 30″ N., long. 86° 15′ 50″ E.; on the left bank of the river Keul, 4 miles south-west of the Jamúi station on the East Indian Railway, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Population (1881) under 5000. This town lies within the great Gangetic rice plain, but shares in the slope of the country from the Chakái and Hazáribágh plateau northwards; well drained, and healthy. It contains the usual public buildings, a jail, branch dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, distillery, etc. Exports—*mahuá* flowers and oil, buffalo *ghí*, shell-lac, oil-seeds, grain, and *gúr*; imports—cotton, tobacco, piece-goods, and metal vessels. Trade carried on by rail and by pack-bullocks; no metalled roads in the town. Jamúi is a town of recent growth, and has no historical interest; to the south of it are the remains of an old fort.

Jamuná.—River of Northern India.—*See* JUMNA.

Jamuná (*Jamoona* or *Janái*).—The name given to the lower section of the BRAHMAPUTRA (*q.v.*) in Northern Bengal, from its entrance into the plains to its confluence with the Ganges. This channel is of compara-

tively recent formation, but now carries down by far the largest volume of water. When Major Rennell compiled his map of Bengal towards the close of the last century, the main stream of the Brahmaputra flowed in a south-easterly direction across the District of Maimansingh, past the civil station of Nasirábád, to join the Meghná just below Bhairab Bázár. Some thirty years later, at the time of Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's survey, this channel had already become of secondary importance. At the present time, though it still bears the name of the Brahmaputra, it has dwindled to a mere watercourse, only navigable during the rainy season. The Jamuná, as had been anticipated by Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, is now the main stream, and in fact the only one marked in common maps. It extends from near Ghorámára in Rangpur District to the river mart of Goálanda in Farídpur, situated at the junction of the Padmá or main stream of the Ganges. Its course is almost due north and south, extending approximately from 26° to 24° N. lat. Along the left or east bank stretches the District of Maimansingh; on the right or west bank lie Rangpur, Bográ, and Pabná, all in the Rájsháhí Division.

Although a modern creation, the Jamuná thus serves as an important administrative boundary. In that portion of its course which fringes Bográ District, it is locally known as the Dáo-kobá or Hatchet-cut, perhaps to distinguish it from another river of the same name in that District. It runs through a low-lying country, formed out of its own loose alluvial sands. At some points, its channel swells to a breadth in the rainy season of 4 or 5 miles, broken by frequent *chars* or sandbanks, which form, are washed away, and re-form year after year, according to the varying incidence of the current. The low lands on either bank supply the most favourable soil for jute cultivation in Bengal. The chief river mart on the Jamuná is SIRAJGANJ in Pabná District, which collects the agricultural produce of all the surrounding country. In 1876-77, the total number of country boats registered at Sirájganj was 49,644. The Jamuná is navigable throughout its entire length by native craft of the largest burthen at all seasons of the year, and also by the river steamers that ply to Assam.

Jamuná.—A deltaic distributary of the Ganges, or rather the name given to a part of the waters of the ICHHAMATI during a section of its course. The Jamuná enters the Twenty-four Parganás at Baliáni from Nadiyá District; and after a south-easterly route through the Twenty-four Parganás, winds amid the forests and jungles of the Sundarbans until it empties itself into the Ráimangal, a short distance from where that estuary merges in the sea, in lat. 21° 47′ N., and long. 89° 13′ E. The Jamuná is a deep river, and navigable throughout the year by trading boats of the largest size. Where it enters the Twenty-four Parganás, the stream is about 150 yards wide, but its breadth gradually

increases in its progress southwards to from 300 or 400 yards. The canals which run from Calcutta eastward fall into this river at Husainábád.

Jamuná.—A river of Assam, rising in lat. 26° 31′ N., and long. 93° 31′ E., in the north of the Nágá Hills, and flowing first south and then west along the southern foot of the Rengmá Hills, finally falls into the Kapili, a tributary of the Brahmaputra, in Nowgong District, at the village of Jamuná-mukh, in lat. 26° 5′ N., and long. 92° 47′ E. Its tributaries in the hills are the Dikhru, Sargatí, and Pathrádesá, all small streams. In the lower part of its course it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year. Coal and limestone of good quality are found in certain portions of its bed.

Jamuná (*Jaboona*).—A river of Northern Bengal, probably representing one of the old channels of the Tístá. It rises in Dinájpur District, not far from the boundary of Rangpur, and flowing due south along the border of Bográ, finally falls into the Atrái, itself a tributary of the Ganges, near the village of Bhawánípur in Rájsháhí District. In the lower part of its course it is navigated all the year round by country boats of considerable burthen, but higher up it only becomes navigable during the rainy season, from June to October. The chief river marts on the banks of the Jamuná are Phúlbári and Birámpur in Dinájpur District, and Hillí in Bográ, just beyond the Dinájpur boundary. Hillí is one of the largest rice marts in Northern Bengal.

Jamwári.—River in Oudh; a small tributary of the Saráyan, rising in Bhurwárá village, Kheri District, in lat. 27° 56′ N., and long. 80° 38′ E. After flowing a tortuous course of 41 miles, it joins the Saráyan on its left bank, in Sultánpur District, in lat. 27° 32′ N., and long. 80° 47′ E.

Janaurá.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; adjoining Ajodhya. Said to have been originally founded by Rájá Janakjí, and having fallen into decay, to have been re-founded by the Oudh Vikramáditya in the 2nd century A.D. Population (1881) 2021 Hindus, 436 Musalmáns, and 3 'others;' total, 2460.

Jandiálá.—Town and municipality in Amritsar *táhsil* and District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 31° 50′ 45″ N., and long. 75° 37′ E., on the Grand Trunk Road, 12 miles south-east of Amritsar city, and a station on the Lahore and Delhi Railway. Founded by a colony of Játs, and named after Jand, the son of their leader. Population (1881) 6535, namely, Muhammadans, 3490; Hindus, 2380; Sikhs, 402; Jains, 254; 'others,' 9. Number of houses, 1200. Municipal income in 1882–83, £480, or 1s. 5½d. per head of the population. The town carries on a considerable trade, entirely with Amritsar, and is noted for its manufacture of brass and copper vessels. Police station,

sarái, Government and mission schools, post-office, dispensary, and encamping-ground. The Sobráon and Kasúr branch of the Barí Doáb Canal runs a mile and a half east of the town.

Jandiálá.—Town in Phillaur *tahsíl*, Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 9′ 30″ N., long. 75° 39′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 6316, namely, 3013 Hindus, 978 Muhammadans, and 2325 Sikhs. Number of houses, 1191. The town is an agricultural centre, of purely local importance.

Jangipur.—Sub-division of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 19′ to 24° 52′ N., and long. 87° 51′ 30″ to 88° 24′ 15″ E. Area, 508 square miles; villages, 986; houses, 54,448. Population (1872) 267,907; (1881) 304,080, namely, males 145,009, and females 159,071. Total increase of population in the nine years, 36,173, or 13·50 per cent. Persons per square mile, 598; villages per square mile, 1·94; persons per village, 308; houses per square mile, 114; persons per house, 5·6. Muhammadans numbered 160,844, or 52·9 per cent. of the population; Hindus, 142,993, or 47·0 per cent.; Santáls, 200; Jains, 29; and Christians, 14. This Sub-division comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Raghunáthganj, Mírzapur, Díwán Sarái, Suti, and Shamsherganj. It contains one civil and one criminal court, a regular police force 117 strong, and a village watch of 850 men.

Jangipur (or *Jahángírpur*).—Chief town of Jangipur Sub-division of Murshidábád District, Bengal; situated on the left bank of the Bhágíráthí, in lat. 24° 28′ N., and long. 88° 6′ 45″ E. Population (1872) 11,361; (1881) 10,187, namely, Hindus, 6378; Muhammadans, 3790; 'others,' 19. Area of town site, 640 acres. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £834; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7½d. per head. The town is said to have been founded by the Emperor Jahángír. During the early years of British rule, it was an important centre of the silk trade, and the site of one of the Company's Commercial Residencies. The number of boats registered here annually is about 10,000; the amount of toll, £8000, or about one-third of the total gross revenue derived from the Nadiyá rivers.

Janjirá (*Habsán*).—Native State within the Political Agency of Kolába (Colaba), in the Konkán, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° to 18° 31′ N., and long. 72° 53′ to 73° 17′ E. The State is bounded north by the Kundalika or Rohá creek in the British District of Kolába; east by the Rohá and Mahád Sub-divisions of the same District; south by the Bánkot creek in the District of Ratnágiri; and west by the Arabian Sea. About the middle of the coast-line, 40 miles long, the Rájpuri Gulf divides Janjirá into two main portions, northern and southern. Area, 325 square miles. Population (1881) 76,361; density of population, 235 per square mile; gross revenue in 1882–83,

£37,600, not including the accounts of the Nawáb's private treasury, which shows an income of £11,437.

Physical Aspects.—The surface of the State of Janjirá or Habsán is covered with spurs and hill ranges, averaging about 1000 feet in height, and generally running parallel to the arms of the sea that penetrate eastwards into the interior. The sides of the hills are thickly wooded, except where cleared for cultivation. Inland from the coast, rise ranges of wooded hills. Near the mouths of the creeks, belts of palm groves of from one to two miles broad fringe the shore. Behind the palm groves lie salt marshes and mangrove bushes; behind these again, the rice lands of the valleys. The wealthiest and largest villages nestle in the palm-belt along the coast. Gardeners, the richer fishermen, and palm-tappers inhabit them. Inland, the banks of the creeks are studded with hamlets, occupied by husbandmen who cultivate rice. On the hill-sides, in glens or on terraces, are the huts and scanty clearings of Káthkaris and other hillmen. The slopes of lower hills are generally rounded and passable by a pony. These slopes, except in the rains, are bare; but at most times, and particularly at the time of high tide, the Rájpuri creek affords fine views of wooded hill and winding water. During the rains travel is nearly impossible. On the coast, the sand-bars at the mouth of every inlet but the Rájpuri creek prevent ingress. Further inland, the low rice lands become covered with deposited mud, the main streams are flooded too deeply to be forded, and overgrown forest tracts render difficult the passage from one hill range to another. None of the streams are more than five or six miles in length. The larger watercourses flow westward. During the rains they are torrents, but dwindle to mere rills at other seasons. The chief creeks and backwaters are, beginning from the north, the Mándla-Borlai, the Nándgáon, the Marad, the Rájpuri, the Panchaitan or Dive-Borlai, and the Shriwardhan. Most of the creek entrances are rocky and dangerous. During the navigable season, September to June, they can be entered only by boats of under one-and-a-half tons burthen. Once over the bar, the creeks are mostly of uniform depth throughout their course. The mouth of the Rájpuri creek is 25 miles south of Bombay. The creek ends at the old town of Mhasla, 14 miles south-east of Janjirá town. At springs the tide rises 12 feet in the creek. There is no bar. The bottom is muddy. Shoalest water at low tide, 3½ fathoms at the entrance of the creek, 4½ inside the entrance in mid-channel. Steamers can enter, even during the rains, and lie in still water to the south of Janjirá island.

Population.—The population of the State of Janjirá has increased from 71,966 in 1872 to 76,361 in 1881. Of the total in 1881, males numbered 37,782; females, 38,579. Number of villages, 226; occupied houses, 14,421; unoccupied, 1505. Classified according to religion,

60,811, or 80·9 per cent. of the population, were Hindus; 13,912, or 18·2 per cent., Muhammadans; 47 Christians; 27 Jains; 2 Pársís; 590 Beni-Isráel; and 972 aboriginal tribes. The Beni-Isráel, a race of Jewish descent, worship one God, and have no images in their houses. They practise many Jewish rites. The dress and manner of living of the Beni-Isráel, who are mostly oil-pressers by trade, are partly Muhammadan and partly Hindu. They speak Maráthí. Though fond of drink, they are steady, enterprising, and prosperous. The Sidis are the representatives of Habshi or Abyssinian slaves and soldiers of fortune. They are only found in the island of Janjirá. The Sidis number over 200. Many of them are related to the Nawáb or head of the State, and inherit State grants and allowances. The Konkánis are the largest and most important community of Janjirá Muhammadans. The Dáldis are a fishing race which supply boatmen for Bombay harbour. The crews of the Bombay *dubásh* boats,—the 'bumboats' of the harbour,—the steamships of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, and the smaller coasting steamers, are to a great extent recruited from Janjirá. In the rains, when bad weather prevails in the harbour, the Dáldis and other natives of Habsán return to their homes. Shriwardhan (population, 7424) is the largest town in the State.

Climate, Products, etc.—The climate of Janjirá is moist and relaxing, but not unhealthy. The sea-breeze cools the coast and hill-tops. Along the coast, fever and dysentery prevail from October to January. The heat on the coast ranges from 76° F. in the cold weather, and in July and August, at the period of the heaviest rains, to 90° in the hot weather and the period at the close of the rains. Inland, where the sea-breeze does not penetrate, the thermometer ranges 7° or 8° higher. Average rainfall, 100 inches.

Sea-fishing for *pomphlet* and other large fish is the occupation of the bulk of the people. The staple crops are cocoa-nuts, betel-nuts, rice, the coarser varieties of grain, and hemp. Timber and firewood are cut and exported. The manufactures are salt, *sárís*, or robes for women, coarse cloth turbans, and coir rope. Paper is made in Janjirá fort. Recently, small pearls were found in oysters fished up from the Rájpuri creek. The oyster is believed to be the *Placuna placenta*. Judging from the quantities of shells thrown up along the banks of the Rájpuri creek, the beds must be considerable.

Except the plots of rich alluvial rice land in the valleys, and some sandy tracts near the coast, the usual red stony soil of the Konkán prevails throughout Janjirá. For irrigation purposes, water sufficiently fresh is found everywhere by digging a few yards into the easily worked earth. It is drawn from wells by means of the Persian wheel, and from streams by a balance-lift called *upti*. In the strip of light sand bordering the sea coast, cocoa-nut trees grow in great perfection.

Quarries of trap and laterite are occasionally worked. The State has for some years been a chief source of supply of firewood to Bombay city; but its forests have been consequently over-cut, and the necessity of conserving them has engaged the attention of the Government of Bombay.

There are 25 schools, 14 being Maráthá, and 11 Muhammadan. The number of pupils are 816 and 558 respectively. In the 3 girls' schools 141 attended—57 Muhammadans and 84 Hindus. There is a dispensary.

Communications.—External traffic is carried on almost entirely by water. In March 1874, a regular tri-weekly steam communication was established between Bombay and Dásgáon, on the Sávitri river, touching at Janjirá and Shriwardhan. A State post is worked from Alíbágh to Bánkot. There are 12 ferries in the State. A ferry steamer plies between Bombay and Dharamtar. The only made roads are one from Murud to Borli, 14 miles in length, and another from Dighi to Shriwardhan, 19 miles.

History.—The chief is a Sunní Muhammadan, by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with the title of Nawáb. The last chief, Ibráhím Khán Yákut Khán, died in 1879. The Nawáb has no *sanad* authorizing adoption, and pays no tribute. As regards succession, the eldest son does not, as of right, succeed to the throne; but that one among the sons who is decided by the supreme authority in the State to be fittest to rule. Till 1868, the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year, the mal-administration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant; those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands, and vested in a Political Agent. The Treaty, which regulates the dealings of the British Government with the Nawáb, is that of 1870. The name Janjirá is corrupted from the Arabic *jazirah*, 'an island.' The origin of the ruling family is thus related:—About the year 1489 A.D., an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizám Sháhi kings of Ahmednagar, disguised as a merchant, obtained permission from the chiefs of the island to land 300 boxes. Each of these boxes contained a soldier, and by this means the Abyssinians possessed themselves of Janjirá island and the fort of Dandá Rájápur. The island afterwards formed part of the dominions of the King of Bijápur. In the time of Sivají, the government of the Southern Konkán was held by the Admiral of the Bijápur fleet, who was always an Abyssinian. In consequence of harsh treatment at the hands of his master, the Sidi Admiral offered his services, in 1660, to the Mughal Emperor Aurangzeb. The most noticeable point in the history of Janjirá, is its successful resistance, alone of all the States of

Western India, to the determined attacks of the Maráthás, who made its capture a point of honour. After repeated attacks by Sivají, its conquest was again attempted in 1682 by his son Sambají, who besieged the island, which he attempted to connect with the mainland by means of a mole. The project failed, and other attempted modes of attack were defeated with heavy loss. The State maintains a force of 700 men for garrison and police duties. The Nawáb of Janjirá is entitled to a salute of nine guns. The small State of Jáfarábád in Káthiáwár is also governed by this family.

Janjirá.—Town and fort of Janjirá State, in the Konkán, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 18′ N., long. 73° E.; 44 miles south of Bombay. Population (1881) 1784. The fort of Janjirá, on an island at the entrance of the Rájpuri creek, lies half a mile from the mainland on the east, and a mile from the mainland on the west. The walls of the fort rise abruptly from the water to a height of 50 feet. The walls are battlemented and loopholed. In the bastions and on the walls are ten guns. In the fort a yearly Muhammadan fair is held in November, attended by about 3000 visitors. On Nánwell headland, about two miles west of the fort, a lighthouse is being erected. A dioptric light of the fourth order will stand on a tower of about 150 feet about sea-level. It will serve to light the dangerous sunken reef known as the Chor Kássa, situated about three-quarters of a mile from the headland.

Jánsath.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Hindan, traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and watered by the Ganges Canal. It comprises the four *parganás* of Jauli Jánsath, Khatauli, Bhukarheri, and Bhumá Sambhalheri. Area, 453 square miles, of which 287 are cultivated. Population (1872) 161,927; (1881) 183,854, namely, males 98,677, and females 85,177. Increase of population in the nine years, 21,927, or 11·9 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 120,509; Muhammadans, 51,944; Jains, 2316; and 'others,' 85. Of the 241 villages which comprise the *tahsíl*, 121 have less than five hundred inhabitants; 75 from five hundred to a thousand; 27 from one to two thousand; 11 from two to three thousand; and 7 from three to five thousand inhabitants. Total Government revenue, including cesses, £23,531; rental paid by cultivators, £65,131. The *tahsíl*, which in civil matters is within the jurisdiction of the *munsif* of Muzaffarnagar, contains 3 criminal courts, that of a deputy magistrate or *tahsíldár*, and those of 2 honorary magistrates. For police purposes, the *tahsíl* is divided into the four police circles (*thánás*) of Jánsath, Bhopa, Míranpur, and Khatauli. Strength of regular police, 49 officers and men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 374.

Jánsath.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Jánsath *tahsíl*. Lat. 29° 19′ 15″ N., long. 77° 53′ 20″ E. Situated on a low part of the plain, 14 miles south-east of Muzaffarnagar town. Famous as the home of the Jánsath Sayyids, who held all the chief offices of the Delhi Empire in the early part of the 18th century. Jánsath was sacked and destroyed by a Rohillá force, under orders from the Wazír Kamar-ud-dín, in 1737, and most of the Sayyids were slain or exiled; but some of their descendants still inhabit the town. Population (1881) 6284, namely, Hindus, 3354; Muhammadans, 2839; and Jains, 91. Area of town site, 70 acres. A small municipal revenue for police and conservancy purposes is raised under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act. Police station, post-office, school.

Jáoli.—Sub-division of Satára District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* Javli.

Jáora.—Native State under the Western Málwá Agency, Central India. The territory of the Jáora State consists of two principal tracts. The larger tract lies between lat. 23° 32′ and 23° 55′ N., and between long. 74° 52′ and 75° 32′ E.; the smaller tract lies between lat. 24° 10′ and 24° 20′ N., and long. 75° 10′ and 75° 25′ E. The area of the whole is 872 square miles. Population (1881) 108,434, namely, 57,245 males and 51,189 females; Hindus numbered 87,833, Muhammadans 13,318, Jains 2010, Pársís 12, Christians 3, and aboriginal tribes 5258. Revenue of the State (1881), £79,930.

The lands of this chiefship were originally assigned by Holkar to the Pathán adventurer Amír Khán, for support of troops to aid his schemes of aggrandizement in Northern India. Amír Khán's brother-in-law, Gafúr Khán, being in occupation when the battle of Mehidpur decided the fate of Málwá in 1818, the possession of Jáora was secured to him and his heirs by the British Government. The present Nawáb of Jáora, who succeeded in 1865, is Muhammad Ismáil Khán, by race a Pathán. His residence is at Jáora. Though nominally a feudatory of Holkar, and liable to the payment of a succession *nazaráná* of 2 *lákhs* (£20,000), the Nawáb is directly under the protection and political control of the British Government. He holds a *sanad* guaranteeing the succession according to Muhammadan law, in the event of failure of natural heirs. Jáora State contains the best poppy-growing lands in Málwá, and silver mines are said to have formerly been worked. The Nawáb keeps up a military force of 15 guns, with 69 gunners; cavalry, 121; regular infantry, 200; and irregular foot levies, 200: police, 497. His services during the Mutiny were rewarded by an increase to his salute of 13 guns, and by a reduction in his annual contribution to the Contingent, now fixed at £16,181. The Rájputána-Málwá State Railway passes through the State.

Jáora.—Chief town of the State of Jáora, under the Western Málwá Agency of Central India, and a station of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway. Lat. 23° 37′ N., long. 75° 8′ E. The town contains (1881) 4400 houses, and a population of 19,902, namely, 10,336 males and 9566 females; Hindus numbered 10,547, Muhammadans 8892, and 'others' 463. It was formerly the residence of a *Thákur*, whose family still exists here in the enjoyment of a pension. The present town was laid out by Colonel Borthwick in regular streets, and boasts one of the most beautiful stone bridges in Central India, built by him. The houses and shops are substantial; the town is surrounded by a stone wall not yet completed. A fair amount of trade is carried on, and the town is connected by railway with Ratlám (20 miles) on the south and Partábgarh (32 miles) on the north. It contains an opium-weighing depôt, post and telegraph offices, school, and dispensary. Elevation, 1450 feet. The small river Píria, on which the town is situated, becomes a torrent in the rainy season.

Járcha (*Jhárcha*).—Town in Sikandarábád *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, situated 8 miles north of Sikandarábád, 7 miles east of Dádri, and 20 miles north-west of Bulandshahr town. The population (3776 in 1881) consists chiefly of Sayyids, styled Sabzwárí, who claim descent from the Sayyids of Sabzwár in Turkistán, whence they came during the reign of the Tughlak dynasty. The correct name of the town is said to be Chár Cháh, or 'the four wells,' because four wells were sunk here by the founder of the town, Sayyid Zain-ul-abdín, who obtained a revenue-free grant of 3500 *bighás* from the Emperor Mubárak Sháh, on condition of ousting the Mewátís. The four wells are still to be seen, and the descendants of the founder continued in enjoyment of the grant until 1857, when they took part in the plunder of Síkandarábád, and their holdings were confiscated. The village was then sold by auction. It realized £17,800, and passed into the possession of a Hindu family. The town is famous for the number and excellence of its mango trees. Weekly market on Wednesdays; police station, and school. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied under the provisions of Act XX. of 1856. The Ganges Canal runs about a mile north of the town.

Járod.—Sub-division of Baroda (the Gáekwár's territory), Bombay Presidency. Area, 350 square miles. Bounded on the north by the Rewa Kántha Agency; west by Baroda Sub-division; south by Dabhoi Sub-division; east by Hálol District. Acres under cultivation, 28,894; waste, 23,725 acres; cultivable waste, 96,210. Population (1872) 65,225. No later population statistics are available. The Sub-division consists of a well-wooded plain, intersected by the Viswámitri, Surya, and Jambva rivers. The soil is either black or *gorát* (yellow). Number of holdings (of from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to $15\frac{1}{2}$ acres), 4300. Cotton, *bájra*, and *joár*

are the staple crops. Savali (population in 1881, 6275) is the head-quarters of the Sub-division.

Jarwál.—Town in Bahráich District, Oudh; on the road from Bahramghát to Bahráich, 5½ miles from the former and 29 from the latter town. Lat. 27° 10′ 9″ N., long. 81° 35′ 33″ E. A Muhammadan town, captured from the Bhars in 1340 A.D., by a Sayyid chief, whose descendants still reside here. Their influence has of late much decreased, and a considerable portion of their ancestral estates has passed into the possession of Rájput neighbours. Population (1869) 1908; (1881) 4187. Bi-weekly market for the sale of grain, cloth, and brass vessels. Manufactures—fireworks, dyes, saltpetre, scents, and felts, the latter being a speciality of Bahráich District. Two Hindu temples, 4 mosques, rest-house (*sarái*), Government school.

Jasdán.—Native State of the Gohelwár Division of the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Province of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Area, 283 square miles. Population (1872) 30,134; (1881) 29,037; number of villages, 62; estimated gross revenue, £14,500. Products, cotton and grain. Jasdán ranks as a third-class State among the many petty States of Káthiáwár. Its ruler entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The chief of Jasdán pays to the British Government, the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawáb of Junágarh, an aggregate tribute of £1066, and maintains a military force of 341 men. He holds no *sanad* of adoption, but the succession follows the rule of equal division of property between the brothers, with extra allowance ('*mohtáp*'), to the eldest. The State has (1882) 6 schools, with 382 pupils. The police consists of 60 mounted and 348 foot, with 500 *pásaitas*. Dispensary.

Jasdán.—Chief town of Jasdán State, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 5′ N., long. 71° 20′ E., about 4 miles north-east of Adkot, and 6 miles north of Kotra Pitha, both of which are on the Rájkot-Bhawnagar high-road. Jasdán is a town of great antiquity, and possibly derives its name from Swámi Chashtana, one of the very earliest of the Kshatrapa dynasty. During the reign of the Ghorís of Junágarh a strong fort was built here, and the town was called Ghorgarh. A good road connects it with Vinchia, which it is proposed ultimately to connect with the railway at Botád. Population (1872) 3663; (1881) 3873. School and dispensary.

Jashpur.—Petty State of Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. Lat. 22° 17′ 5″ to 23° 15′ 30″ N., long. 83° 32′ 50″ to 84° 26′ 15″ E. Area, 1963 square miles. Population (1881) 90,240. Bounded on the north and west by the State of Sargújá; on the south by Gángpur and Udaipur; and on the east by Lohárdagá District.

Physical Aspects.—The State of Jashpur consists in almost equal

proportions of highland and lowland areas. On its eastern side, the table-land of the Upargháṭ (2200 feet above the sea) blends with and forms an integral part of the plateau of Chutiá Nágpur; towards the west, it springs abruptly from the Hetghát, with a wall buttressed at places by projecting masses of rock. The lowlands of Hetghát and of Jashpur proper lie to the south in successive steppes, broken by low hills, gneiss rocks, and isolated bluffs. A slight depression separates the Upargháṭ from the still loftier plateau of the Khuriá (3000 to 3700 feet), which occupies the north-west corner of the State, forming the watershed between the Ib and the Kanhar, a tributary of the Son (Soane). This plateau consists of trap rock topped with volcanic laterite, overlying the granite and gneiss which form the surface rocks at lower elevations. It has been extensively denuded by the waters of the Ib, Kanhar, and Lowa, and their tributaries, which have hollowed out valleys generally lying about 1000 feet below the level of the plateau. The result is that the numerous sections which have been surrounded by the rivers, and thus cut off from the main plateau, stand out like islands rising above the surrounding valleys. The Pandrapat, which forms the western and highest part of the plateau, covers about 150 square miles. It is well wooded, and watered by streams running in wide valleys, bounded by gently sloping hills. The soil on the plateau is excellent, and the climate exceedingly healthy, with a height of about 3500 feet above sea-level. The volcanic laterite which forms the surface soil of the Khuriá plateau also occurs on the Upargháṭ and part of the Hetghát, but the trap does not appear except on the Khuriá plateau and its outlying sections. The principal heights in Jashpur are Ránījulá (3527 feet), Kohiar (3393 feet), Bharamurio (3390 feet). The chief river is the Ib, which flows through the State from north to south; but numerous rapids render it unnavigable. The small rivers to the north are feeders of the Kanhar. Iron and gold are found in Jashpur; *sál*, *sisú*, ebony, and other valuable timber abound along the course of the Ib. Jungle products —lac, *tasar* silk, and beeswax.

History.—Jashpur, with the rest of the Sargújá group of States, was ceded to the British Government by the provisional engagement concluded with Madhují Bhonsla (Apá Sahib) in 1818. Although noticed in the second article of this agreement as a separate estate, Jashpur was at first treated in some measure as a fief of Sargújá, through which State it still pays tribute; in every other respect it is dealt with as a distinct territory. The chief of Jashpur renders no feudal service to Sargújá; his annual income is about £1200; the tribute to Government, £77, 10s.

Population.—The total population of Jashpur State in 1881 numbered 90,240 persons, being 45,999 males and 42,241 females; density of

population, 46 per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of 89,696 Hindus and 544 Muhammadans. The Census of 1881 does not give any ethical classification, but the great majority of the inhabitants are Dravidian and Kolarian aborigines, who in 1872 formed upwards of 82 per cent. of the population of the State. The principal aboriginal tribes are the Uráons, Rautias, and Korwás. The residence of the Rájá is at Jagdispur or Jashpurnagar.

Crops.—Cereals, oil-seeds, fibres, and cotton.

Jashpur.—Hill range in Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal. The principal peaks are—Rámíjulá, 3527 feet in height, lat. 22° 59′ 45″ N., long. 83° 38′ E.; Kohiar, 3393 feet; Bharamurio, 3390 feet; Chipli, 3300 feet; Laiongbir, 3293; Bhusrunga, 3285 feet; Talora, 3258 feet; Dulum, 3248 feet; Garh, 3226; Dhasma, 3222 feet, etc.

Jaso.—Petty State in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency, situated between lat. 24° 20′ and 24° 34′ N., and between long. 80° 28′ and 80° 40′ 30″ E. The present (1883) chief, Diwán Gujráj Singh, is a Hindu Bundela. Area of State, 75 square miles, with 57 villages and 1775 houses. Population (1881) 8050, namely, males 4022, and females 4028. Hindus numbered 7142; Muhammadans, 121; Jains, 18; and aboriginal tribes still professing their primitive faiths, 769. Revenue (1875), £1400. The chief keeps up a military force of 2 guns and about 50 horsemen. He holds a *sanad*, giving the right of adoption. The town of Jaso is in lat. 24° 27′ N., and long. 80° 35′ E.

Jasol.—*Jágír* estate and village in the District of Mallání, Jodhpur State, Rájputána. The estate comprises 72 villages, and an annual tribute of £210 is paid to Jodhpur State. The high hill known as Nagar of Jasol is in this estate. It is the loftiest point of a small ridge which trends in a south-western direction for about three miles; the ascent to it is about a mile and a quarter in length; on the top are reservoirs for water. The village of Jasol lies near the left bank of the Luní river, in lat. 25° 8′ N., and long. 72° 21′ E., 60 miles south-west of Jodhpur city. The village, which is built at the northern base of a conical hill, contains a bungalow for the accommodation of the political superintendent when on tour, and for European gentlemen when travelling through the State.

Jaspur.—Town in the Tarái District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 16′ 45″ N., long. 78° 52′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 6746; (1881) 7055, namely, Hindus, 4225; Muhammadans, 2796; and Jains, 34. Area of town site, 494 acres. A house-tax for police and conservancy purposes is levied under the provisions of Act xx. of 1856.

Jaspura.—Village in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; 17 miles north of Bánda town. Population (1881) 1772. The neighbouring fort of Abhaipur was founded by a robber chieftain, Humáyun, who

gathered a body of followers during the 18th century, and took the title of Rájá. He diverted the waters of the Ken into an artificial channel, which supplies a valuable means of irrigation at the present day.

Jasrota.—Extinct principality and town in Kashmír State, Punjab, Northern India; situated in lat. 32° 29′ N., and long. 75° 27′ E., among the mountains of the southern Himálayan chain. The last Rájá was dispossessed by Ranjít Singh. Thornton describes the Rájá's residence as a handsome palace with four towers. Small *bázár* and inconsiderable trade.

Jaswán Dún.—Valley in Hoshiárpur District, Punjab, intervening between the Siwálik Hills and the outer Himálayan range. It corresponds to the Dehra Dún in the Gangetic Doáb, and the Khiárda Dún in Náhan State. The Soán torrent traverses its whole length, and its sandy bed is one or two miles wide. Spurs from the neighbouring hills project into the central dale from either range, but there is a wide stretch of comparatively level and open ground, with a breadth of from 4 to 14 miles. Elevation of the town of Una, situated about the middle of the Dún, 1404 feet above the sea. This valley formed the principal part of the ancient Rájput principality of Jaswán, and gives its name to the tribe of Jaswál Rájputs, which is nearly allied to the royal Katoch house of Kángra.

Jaswantnagar.—Town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 52′ 50″ N., long. 78° 56′ 30″ E. Situated on the East Indian Railway, 10 miles north-west of Etáwah town. Population (1872) 5310; (1881) 4950, namely, Hindus, 3536; and Muhammadans, 1414 Named after Jaswant Rái, a Máinpuri Káyasth, who settled in the town in 1715. Handsome houses of the wealthier merchants Fine tank, with temple and bathing *gháts* built by a rich *mahájan*. Place of worship *of the Saraugis, who form a considerable element in the population.* A small Hindu temple west of the town was occupied on May 19, 1857, by mutineers of the 3rd Native Cavalry; during a bold attempt to dislodge them, the Joint Magistrate was wounded in the face. Considerable trade in yarn, cattle, and country produce, as well as English piece-goods. Exports of indigo and *ghí*, manufacture of native cloth. Railway station, first-class police station, and good school. The *Chaukidári* Act (xx. of 1856) is in force in the town, and yielded an income of £274 in 1881–82.

Jath.—Native State under the Political Agency of Satára, Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 50′ to 17° 18′ N., and long. 75° 1′ to 75° 31′ E. Area, 884 square miles. Population (1881) 49,486; density of population, 55 9 per square mile. Hindus numbered 46,427; Muhammadans, 2842; and 'others,' 217. Number of villages, 110; occupied houses, 7935; unoccupied houses, 1286; estimated gross revenue

(excluding alienations amounting to £4500), £12,500. Since 1872 the population has decreased by 14,514, or 23 per cent. The land is poor, especially in the west; but in the centre of the State, and along the Bor river in the east, the soil is richer. Cultivation is neglected, and there has been little attempt at irrigation. Cattle-breeding is more remunerative, the weekly market at the town of Jath serving as a centre of exchange for the surrounding country. The staple products are *bájra* and *joár*. Cotton, wheat, gram, and safflower are also grown. There are in the Jath State 17 schools, with 682 pupils; charitable dispensary. The police force consists of 64 men; there are 4 criminal courts. A municipal fund is raised by a tax on the sale of cattle at the weekly market at Jath. The chief is a Hindu (Maráthá) of the Kshattriya caste, and his titles are Deshmukh and Jágírdár of Jath. He ranks as a first-class Sardár in the Deccan. He holds a *sanad* of adoption, and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. Owing to mismanagement on the part of the chief, the State has been under attachment since April 1874, and the administration is still (1884) conducted by a British officer, known as the Political Agent, Satára. The State had been several times previously attached, but is now prosperous. It pays to the British Government £640 per annum, in lieu of the service of 50 horsemen, and a tribute (*Sir Deshmukhi*) of £484. It also pays £95 to the Panth Pratinidhi Jágírdár of Aundh. Jath is one of the feudatories of the old Satára Ráj.—*See* DAFLAPUR.

Jath.—Chief town of Jath State in Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 17° 3′ N., long. 75° 16′ E.; 92 miles south-east of Satára town, 95 miles north-east of Belgáum, and 150 miles south-east by south of Poona. Population (1881) 5036.

Játi.—*Táluk* of the Sháhbandar Sub-division, Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 33′ 30″ to 24° 36′ N., and long. 68° 0′ 30″ to 68° 48′ 15″ E. Area, 2145 square miles, with 4 *tapás*, 95 villages, and 5357 houses. Population (1881) 27,055, namely, 14,798 males and 12,257 females. Muhammadans numbered 24,212; Hindus, 2447; Sikhs, 309; and aboriginal tribes, 87. Revenue (1881–82), £6270, of which £5896 was derived from imperial and £374 from local sources. Of the 1,314,020 acres in the *táluk* in 1876, 28,915 were under cultivation, 33,503 cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts, 5 police stations (*thánás*), and 32 regular police.

Jatingá.—River in the north of Cachar District, Assam; which rises amid the Baráil Hills, and flows south past the village of Barkholá into the Barák, a few miles below Silchár. The road to the sub-divisional station of Gunjong lies up the valley of this river.

Jatoi.—Town and municipality in Alípur *tahsíl*, Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 30′ 45″ N., long. 70° 53′ E.; distant from

Alípur 11 miles north-west. Local tradition attributes its foundation to Mír Bajár Khán, in the days of the Emperor Bábar. The Indus washed away the original town at the close of the last century, but it was shortly afterwards rebuilt on the present site. Jatoi was for some time subordinate to Baháwalpur, but was annexed by Diwán Sawan Mall. In the war against Mulráj, the Jatoi people threw off the Sikh rule, and rendered good service in the Multán (Mooltan) campaign. Population (1881) 2035, namely, Muhammadans, 1080; Hindus, 945; and Sikhs, 10. Number of houses, 366. Municipal revenue in 1882-83, £170. Police station, school-house, post-office.

Jatoi.—Village in the Moro *táluk* of Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 30′ 20″ N., long. 68° 3′ 10″ E. Jatoi lies on the right bank of the Dádwah, 11 miles south-east of Moro, the head-quarters of the *táluk*. Population (1872) 892, mostly agriculturists: population not returned for 1881. Export trade in grain, annual value, £600. Founded in 1780.

Jatrápur.—Trading village in Rangpur District, Bengal; near the river Dharla. Lat. 25° 49′ N., long. 89° 47′ 15″ E. Exports, jute and mustard-seed.

Jattá.—Important Government salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab, in the chain of hills known as the Kohát Salt Range. Lies on the north side of the Teri Toi river, 9 miles west of Malgin mine. The salt occurs as solid rock, and is quarried by blasting over an area of one mile by one mile and a half. Only bullocks and donkeys are ordinarily laden here, camels being occasionally prohibited in order to prevent overcrowding at this mine, the nearest of the five situated in the same range. The protective establishment comprises 23 men. The head-quarters of the salt-mines are at Jattá. Quantity extracted in 1881-82 (at Jattá mine), 139,289 *maunds;* amount of duty, £3482. Annual average gross income for the eight years ending 1882, £3103.

Jáulna.—Town in Haidarábád (Hyderábád), Nizam's territory, Deccan, Central India.—*See* JALNA.

Jaum.—Village and fort in Indore State, Central India. Lat. 22° 22′ N., long. 75° 47′ E.; 14 miles south of Mau (Mhow), and 100 north-west of Asírgarh. Jaum is situated on the summit of a pass in the Vindhyá range that is practicable for wheeled carriages; 2328 feet above sea-level.

Jaunpur.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 23′ 45″ and 26° 12′ N. lat., and between 82° 10′ and 83° 7′ 45″ E. long. Jaunpur is the north-eastern District of the Allahábád Division. In shape it is an irregular triangle, with the southern boundary as its base, and the eastern

and western boundaries running up to an apex in the north. The adjacent Districts forming the boundaries are—on the north-west and north, the Oudh Districts of Partábgarh and Sultánpur; on the north-east, Azamgarh; on the east, Gházipur; and on the south and south-west, Benares, Mírzapur, and Allahábád. A small portion of the District is isolated from the remainder by an intrusive belt of Oudh territory in Partábgarh District; while a portion of Partábgarh almost equal in area to this outlying tract is imbedded in the Machhlíshahr *tahsíl* of Jaunpur. Area, 1554 square miles; population (1881) 1,209,663 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of JAUNPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Jaunpur forms part of the wide Gangetic plain, and its surface is composed of a thick alluvial deposit, brought down by the great rivers which flow from the Himálayan range. It differs, however, from the typical plain regions in the slight irregularity of its contour, which is worn down into undulating slopes by the action of minor streams. This apparent diversity of surface is increased by the occurrence of lofty mounds, often covered with groves, which mark the sites of ruined or deserted towns, the relics of a forgotten race, or of the demolished forts of the present Rájput inhabitants. The general slope of the country is from north-west to south-east, and probably does not exceed an average of 6 inches per mile. The prevailing soils are *dúmat* or loam, *matiyár* or clay, and *baluá* or sand, in all of which vegetable mould, clay, and sand are found in varying proportions. *Karáil*, a dark alluvial mould answering to the *már* of Bundelkhand, is found in places marking the former sites of *jhíls*, or in old river-beds. Occasionally may be seen a patch of *úsar*, rendered barren by the white saline efflorescence known as *reh;* but with this exception the whole District is closely tilled, and no waste lands break the continuous prospect of cultivated fields. The northern and central portions are richly wooded with the thick foliage of the mango, or with isolated clumps of *mahuá* and tamarind trees.

The District is divided into two unequal parts by the sinuous channel of the Gúmti, a tributary of the Ganges, which flows past the city of Jaunpur, and cuts off one-third of the area to the north-east. Its total course within the District is about 90 miles, and it is nowhere fordable. At Jaunpur it is traversed by the famous Muhammadan bridge built by Mun'im Khán in 1569-73, consisting of 16 arches, with a total span of 712 feet. Two miles lower down, it is again crossed by the modern railway bridge on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, which has the same number of arches, but double the span of the older work. The channel of the Gúmti is deep and well defined, while the hardness of the nodular limestone through which it has slowly eaten its way effectually prevents those constant shiftings which give rise to endless riparian

disputes in the wider valleys of the great arterial streams. The Gúmti is liable to great and sudden floods. In September 1871, the stream rose 23½ feet in fourteen days; and was 37 feet above its dry season level. The ordinary rise of the Gúmti is seldom over 15 feet. The other rivers of the District are the Sai, the Barna, the Pilli, and the Basohi. Lakes are numerous in the north and south, though rare in the central *parganás;* the largest has a length of about eight miles. There is at present (1884) no canal in the District; but the northern and southern Jaunpur branches of the proposed Sárda canal will, if completed, irrigate its western half, and fall into the Gúmti near Jaunpur town.

The largest jungle tract is a small *dhák* forest in Karákat *tahsíl*, with an area of about 2000 acres, although towards the end of the 18th century there were large forest tracts in Khutáhan *tahsíl*. These have entirely disappeared as population has increased and cultivation been extended. Of waste lands there are practically none, save the occasional patches of *úsar* mentioned above. *Kankar* or nodular limestone, used for road metalling or manufactured into lime, is found in all the upland parts of the District.

Owing to the density of the population and the absence of forests or waste lands, wild animals are scarce, and the waterfowl of the marshy lakes form the only attraction for the sportsman. But cobras and other snakes are common, while packs of wolves frequent the scanty ravines which border the Gúmti and the Sai.

History.—In the earliest times, Jaunpur was held by the Bhars, a tribe of non-Aryan aborigines, who occupied the whole northern slope of the central Ganges plain. Few traces of their long settlement in this District can now be recovered. Along the banks of the Barna, frequent mounds conceal the sites of large cities destroyed by fire; but these were probably overthrown in the 9th century of our era, when the great Bráhmanist revival finally triumphed over Buddhism, and the faith of Sakya Muni was trampled out with flame and sword throughout all Upper India. Vast temples also stood at one time by the side of the Gúmti, and some portions of their architecture have survived the devastation of the earliest Musalmán invaders; yet nothing is known with certainty of their age or founders. The fort of Fíroz, built about the year 1360, was almost entirely constructed from ruined temples of Buddhist or Hindu origin, and carved stones taken from the infidel buildings abound in the walls. Doubtless, in prehistoric times Jaunpur formed a portion of the Ajodhya principality; and when it first makes an appearance in authentic history, it was subject to the rulers of Benares. With the rest of their dominions it fell under the yoke of the Musalmán marauders after the victory gained by Sháhab-ud-dín over the Hindu champion Jai Chand, in 1194 A.D.

From this time the tract now forming the District of Jaunpur

appears to have been ruled by a prince of the Kanauj dynasty, as a tributary of the Muhammadan suzerain. In 1360, Firoz Tughlak, on his return from an expedition to Bengal, encamped at Jaunpur, and, being struck with the advantages of its site, determined to build a city on the spot. He remained there for six months, and demolished one Hindu temple; but the stout resistance of the populace compelled him to refrain from his attempt to level another, the votive offering of Jai Chand. At a later date, however, it was destroyed by Ibráhím Sultán of Jaunpur, who employed the stones to construct the mosque known as the Atala Masjid. In 1388, Malik Sarwar Khwája, a eunuch who had become Wazír at Delhi, was sent by Muhammad Tughlak to govern the eastern Province, which extended from Kanauj to Behar. The ambitious eunuch fixed his residence at Jaunpur; and in 1394, taking advantage of Timúr's invasion, he made himself independent of the Delhi court, and assumed the title of Sultán-us-Shark, or Eastern Emperor.

For nearly a century, the Sharki dynasty ruled at Jaunpur, and proved formidable rivals to the sovereigns of Delhi. They possessed the greater part of Hindustán, and were engaged in one long struggle with their former masters for the supremacy of the whole. The founder of the dynasty, who died in 1400, left his dominions to his adopted son Mubárak Khán. The new Sultán reigned only for a single year, and died in 1401, while resisting an attack of the Delhi forces at Kanauj. He was succeeded by his younger brother, Ibráhím, the builder of the Atala Masjid. Ibráhím's life was spent in a long contest for the recovery of Kanauj, which he was obliged to cede in the earlier years of his reign, and for the conquest of Kalpi, which he twice unsuccessfully attacked. He died in 1440. His son, Mahmúd, was more aggressive. In 1442 he took Kalpi, and ten years later marched upon Delhi, to which he laid siege. Bahlol Lodi, the real ruler of the Empire under the *fainéant* Emperor Alá-ud-dín, returned from the Punjab, raised the siege, and utterly defeated Mahmúd. The last of the dynasty was Sultán Hassan, who passed his life in a fierce and chequered struggle for supremacy with Bahlol, then actual Emperor at Delhi. At length, in 1478, Bahlol succeeded in defeating his rival in a series of decisive engagements. He took the city of Jaunpur, but permitted the conquered Hassan to reside there, and to complete the building of his great mosque, the Jamá Masjid, which forms the chief ornament of the town at the present day. Many other architectural works in the District still bear witness to its former greatness under its independent Musalmán rulers. In spite of such unwonted clemency, Hassan more than once rebelled, and died an insurgent in 1495.

Under the Lodi dynasty the history of Jaunpur contains nothing more than the stereotyped narrative of provincial intrigue, constant revolt,

and bloody repression. When Ibráhím, the last of that line, was defeated and killed at Pánípat by Bábar in 1526, Bahádur Khán, the governor of Jaunpur, asserted his independence; and for a short time a local kingdom was once more established in the District. But after the fall of Agra and Delhi, Bábar sent his son Humáyún eastward for the recovery of Jaunpur and Behar. Thenceforward the District formed a portion of the Mughal Empire, except during the brief interposition of Sher Sháh and his family. In 1575, Akbar removed the viceregal court for the eastern Provinces to his newly-founded city and fort of Allahábád; and Jaunpur was governed from that time by a Nizám. Nothing worthy of note occurred in connection with this District until 1722, when it was transferred, with Benares, Gházípur, and Chanár, from the viceroyalty of Allahábád and the direct sway of the Delhi Empire to the hands of the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh. The latter appointed Balwant Singh to the government of these Districts, with the title of Rájá of Benares. In 1750, when the Rohillá leader, Sayyid Ahmad Bangash, defeated the Wazír Saádat Khán, he nominated his own kinsman, Zama Khán, to be governor of the Benares Province. Zama Khán was finally expelled from Jaunpur by Rájá Chait Singh of Benares. The Nawáb Wazír, however, retained possession of the fort, which was not handed over to Chait Singh till the English gave it him in 1777.

Our first connection with the District arose in 1765, when it passed for a short time into our hands after the battle of Baxar. In 1775 it was made over to us permanently by the treaty of Lucknow. From that time nothing occurred which calls for notice up till the date of the Mutiny. On 5th June 1857, news of the Benares revolt reached Jaunpur. The Sepoys of the treasury guard at once mutinied, and shot their own officers, as well as the Joint Magistrate. They then marched off to Lucknow without molesting the other Europeans, who made good their escape to Benares. The District continued in a state of complete anarchy till the arrival of the Gurkhá force from Azamgarh on 8th September. The civil officials then returned to Jaunpur, and the police stations were re-established; but the north and west of the District remained in rebellion. In November, owing to the active levies made by Mehndi Hassan, who styled himself Nizám of Jaunpur, most of the surrounding country was lost again. But in February 1858, the rebels of the north and west were defeated and dispersed; and in May, the last smouldering embers of disaffection were stifled by the repulse of the insurgent leader Jurhi Singh from Machhlishahr, at the hands of the people themselves. After that time, no more serious disturbance occurred than the gang robberies of a few desperate dacoit leaders.

cultivation has almost reached its limit, and is the third most densely populated District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. The Census of 1853 returned the population at 1,143,749 persons; in 1865, the number had decreased to 1,015,427; in 1872, there was a slight rise to the total of 1,025,961 persons; and in 1881, to 1,209,663, or an increase of 65,914 in the 28 years since 1853. The Census of 1881 was taken upon an area of 1554 square miles. It disclosed a total population of 1,209,663 persons, distributed among 3120 villages and 204,387 houses. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 778; villages per square mile, 2; houses per square mile, 131·5; persons per village, 388; persons per house, 5·9. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 611,407; females, 598,256; proportion of males, 50·6 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males 240,984, and females 222,965; total children, 463,949, or 38·3 per cent.: 15 years and upwards—males 370,423, and females 375,291; total adults, 745,714, or 61·7 per cent.

In religion, Jaunpur is still essentially Hindu, in spite of its long subjection to Muhammadan rulers, and the continued presence of a local Musalmán court. The Census shows 1,095,986 Hindus, being at the rate of 90·6 per cent., as against 113,553 Muhammadans, who stand in the proportion of only 9·4 per cent. As regards the ethnical distinctions and caste differences of the people, Bráhmans in 1881 numbered 149,441; Rájputs, 115,133; Baniyás, 26,287; Ahírs, 184,019; Chamárs, 172,543; Káyasths, 15,020; and Kurmís, 47,666. Among the Musalmáns, Sunnís were returned at 99,849, and Shiahs at 13,704. With the exception of Lucknow, the Shiahs form a larger percentage of the Muhammadan population, namely 12 per cent., than in any other District in the Lieutenant-Governorship, owing to the long continuance of a Shiah court at Jaunpur under the Lodi dynasty, which was overthrown by Bábar at Pánipat in 1526. Europeans numbered 53; Eurasians, 36; and native Christians, 31. The sects of Christians represented in Jaunpur are the Churches of England and Rome, Presbyterians and Baptists. The agricultural population of all ages amounted to 916,617, or 75·77 per cent. of the District total.

Town and Rural Population.—There are only four towns the number of whose inhabitants exceeds 5000, namely, JAUNPUR with 42,845; MACHHLISHAHR, 9200; BADSHAHPUR, 6423; and SHAHGANJ, 6317. The aggregate urban population accordingly amounts to 64,785 persons, or less than 5·3 per cent. of the total. Indeed, as upwards of two-thirds of the villages contain less than five hundred inhabitants, it is clear that the great mass of the people are scattered about in small hamlets, as is usual in the eastern Districts of the North-West; whereas, in the western parts of the Province, a considerable proportion of the popula-

tion is collected together in large towns. Villages containing between five hundred and a thousand inhabitants number 559; while 164 have between one and two thousand. Only 30 places have upwards of two thousand inhabitants.

Material Condition of the People.—A trader's house of the better class generally contains about £50 worth of furniture and utensils of all kinds, of which bedsteads, mattresses, quilts, carpets, and boxes represent about £30, and cooking vessels the remainder. A well-to-do cultivator owns a few strong boxes, bedsteads, and quilts, worth about £10, besides cooking vessels worth £5 or £6. An artisan in middling circumstances possesses one or two mattresses, bedsteads, and quilts, and some drinking vessels, worth altogether about £3. A poor labourer has only a few earthen jars, one or two quilts, and perhaps a cot or two of grass cord stretched on a wooden frame, worth in all from 10s. to £1. The poorer classes of cultivators, labourers, and mechanics are all in much the same condition: the coarsest and scantiest clothing and food, a few vessels necessary for cooking, a hut with rough mud walls, and a thatch to cover them being usually the extent of their possessions. The Kurmis and Kachhís are much better off than the other agricultural classes. They cultivate poppy, tobacco, and vegetables, make larger profits, are more steady and industrious; and as they are thus able to pay higher rents, they are much sought after by landlords, and are very rarely disturbed in their holdings. According to occupation, the male population is divided into six classes in the Census Report as follows:—(1) Professional, including Government officials and servants, 5148; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1877; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 7541; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 294,650; (5) manufacturing, including mechanics and artisans, 44,671; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers and male children, 256,520.

Agriculture.—The ordinary soil of Jaunpur is a mixture of vegetable mould, clay, and sand; but in old river-beds and the basins of temporary lakes, a rich black alluvial deposit, answering to the *már* of Bundelkhand, may occasionally be found. The whole District is one wide expanse of cultivation, with scarcely an available acre untilled. The harvests are those common to the rest of Upper India. The *kharif* or autumn crops include rice, Indian corn, cotton, *bájra*, *joár*, and *moth*. They are sown in June, immediately after the first rain of the season, and reaped from September to November. The *rabí* or spring crops are sown in the autumn months, and reaped from March to April. They consist of wheat, barley, oats, peas, and other pulses. Irrigation is carried on from wells, tanks, ponds, and *jhíls*. Although a certain rotation of crops is observed, yet (except for the cultivation of sugar-

cane) the intentional leaving land fallow for an entire year is almost unknown. The mode of cultivation is very simple. Seeds are almost always sown broadcast in land ploughed by an iron spike, set between two pieces of wood, and serving both for share and coulter. A wooden board drawn by bullocks does duty for harrow and roller. The quantity of land taken up by the autumn crops varies with the earliness of the rains and other contingencies; as a rule, about one-third of the cultivable area is sown for the *kharíf*. Near the towns, almost all land is tilled for both harvests; but in the low-lying rice lands, and in indigo or sugar-cane plantations, only one crop a year is grown. The best soils are selected for wheat, and barley ranks next in popular estimation. Sugar yields the greatest profit, but it requires much care and plentiful manuring; while the land in which it is grown must always be left fallow for six months or a year. Indigo cultivation on a large scale dates only from the establishment of British rule, and twenty years ago an area of about 14,000 acres was sown with the plant. Since the disastrous seasons of 1870 and 1871, this area has been much curtailed, although there are still in the District seven large indigo concerns under European management, with many outlying factories. Poppy is cultivated, and opium produced under Government regulations, by Kurmís, who are bound to deliver all the opium produced to the officials of the Opium Department at Gházípur, by whom they are paid at the rate of about 5s. a lb. for opium of 70° consistence. The condition of the peasantry is one of only moderate comfort. The Kurmís and Káchhis, however, who cultivate poppy, tobacco, and vegetables, make larger profits than others, and are steadier and more industrious.

The tenures in the District belong to the three main classes of *zamíndárí*, *pattidárí*, and *bhayáchárá*. The adult male agricultural population in 1881 was returned at 292,643, namely, landholders, 15,235; estate agents, 1809; cultivators, 237,939; and labourers, 37,570. The female adult agriculturists numbered 138,971, namely, landholders, 987; cultivators, 101,066; and labourers, 36,918. Of a total area, according to the latest official statistics, of 1554 square miles, 1519 square miles were assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 962 square miles were returned as under cultivation, 303 square miles as cultivable, and 254 square miles as uncultivable waste. Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £146,962, or an average of 4s. 9d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, including cesses, £233,136, or an average of 7s. 3⅞d. per cultivated acre.

The rates of wages are low, and labour is easily obtained. In 1883, coolies were paid about 3d. per diem; agricultural labourers, from 6s. to 7s. per month; bricklayers, from 4½d. to 6d. per day. Field hands

are usually paid in kind, an adult receiving 2½ lbs. of the coarser grains, with a slight increase at harvest or festivals, and a suit of clothes yearly. Parched gram and treacle for the mid-day meal are supplied by the employer. The average price of food-grains in 1882 was as follows:—Wheat, 19½ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; best rice, 8 *sers* per rupee, or 14s. per cwt.; common rice, 16¼ *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 10d. per cwt.; *joár*, 37 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; *bájra*, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 1d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The Gúmti is liable to sudden freshets during the rainy season, owing to the high banks which it has piled up at its entrance into the Ganges, and which act as dams to prevent the prompt outflow of its flooded waters. These inundations extend to its tributary the Sai. Much damage was thus effected in 1774; but the greatest recorded flood took place in September 1871, when the river rose more than 23 feet in fourteen days, and swept away 4000 houses in the city, besides 9000 others in villages along its banks. On the other hand, Jaunpur has been comparatively free from drought. In 1770, the District suffered like all its neighbours; but in 1783, and in 1803, the scarcity did not rise to the point of famine. The disastrous season of 1837–38, of course, affected Jaunpur to some extent, yet its worst ravages were confined to the western Districts. The distress of 1860–61 did not reach so far east as Jaunpur; while the Bengal famine of 1874 scarcely extended to this District, though severely felt in the trans-Gogra region.

The last recorded scarcity occurred in 1877 and 1878, owing to the failure of the *rabí* or spring crop from drought. To alleviate the distress, Government relief works were set on foot in February 1878, which up to November afforded work to 61,397 persons. Besides these, 25,973 aged or helpless paupers received relief at a poorhouse which was opened in Jaunpur city. The result of the scarcity was the reducing of a large proportion of the people to a weak condition, but without encountering actual starvation. In short, Jaunpur, like its neighbour Azamgarh, has enjoyed a singular immunity from this terrible scourge, when compared with any other part of the plain country. The rainfall seldom or never fails entirely, and it is generally so spread over the year as to secure at least one harvest from total loss.

Communications, Trade, etc.—The District is almost entirely devoted to agriculture, and its trade is confined to raw materials and food-stuffs. A considerable manufacture of indigo is carried on at seven large factories, with numerous out-stations, under European management; but since 1870 and 1871, this industry has declined, and the out-turn fallen off. The principal fairs are held at Mariáhu in September, and at Karchuli in March; they are attended by from 20,000 to 25,000 pilgrims and traders. The Oudh and R[illegible]

through the District, with a length of 45 miles, and stations at Jalálpur, Jaunpur civil station, Jaunpur city, Mihráwan, Kheta Sarái, Sháhganj, and Bilwái. There are altogether 138 miles of metalled and 418½ of unmetalled roads in the District. During the rains, the Gúmti is navigable for the largest native craft, which are employed in bringing down grain from Oudh. The Sai is also navigable for boats of moderate burthen.

Administration.—The District of Jaunpur formed part of the Benares Province under the Oudh Government; and after the introduction of British rule it was at first included in that Division. In 1865 it was transferred to the Allahábád Division. The local staff usually consists of a Magistrate-Collector and a Joint or Assistant Magistrate, with the usual native subordinates. The whole amount of revenue (imperial, municipal, or local) raised in the District in 1876 was £162,472. Of this sum, £125,072, or nearly five-sixths, was contributed by the land-tax. By 1882-83, the gross District revenue had increased to £191,404, while the land-tax had slightly fallen to £124,527. In 1882, the total strength of the regular police force was 575 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £5864. These figures give 1 policeman to every 2·7 square miles of area and to every 2103 of the population; while the cost of maintenance was at the rate of £3, 15s. 5½d. per square mile, or about 1d. per head. The District jail contained a daily average of 224 prisoners in 1882, of whom 212 were males and 12 females. The District contains 19 imperial and 4 local post-offices; and there is a telegraph office at each of the stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Education is making but little progress. In 1875, there were in all 203 schools in Jaunpur, including 7 girls' schools, with a roll-call of 7570 scholars. The city of Jaunpur has a *zilá* school for Oriental languages, besides a large religious institution for Arabic and Persian. In 1882-83, the Government-inspected schools (exclusive of private institutions) numbered 129, with 4976 pupils. In 1881, the Census returned 6802 boys and 115 girls as under instruction, besides 24,954 males and 422 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 17 police circles. There is only one municipality, Jaunpur city. In 1882-83, its total receipts amounted to £2985, and its expenditure to £2428. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 0⅝d. per head of the population within municipal limits.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Jaunpur is moister, the temperature more equable, and the rain more evenly distributed throughout the year, than in most Districts of the North-Western Provinces. The average annual rainfall was 41·71 inches for the 30 years ending 1881. The rainfall in 1881 was 46·10 inches, or 4·39 above the average. The total number of deaths recorded in the year 1882 was 35,455, or 30·39 per thousand of the population. The number of registered deaths from

fevers was 32,253, or 27·64 per thousand of the population. There are three charitable dispensaries in the District, at Jaunpur, Sháhganj, and Machhlishahr. During the year 1883 they afforded relief to 20,582 persons.

Jaunpur.—*Tahsil* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, comprising the *parganás* of Havili Jaunpur, Biálsi, Rári, Zafarábád, Kariyát Dost, Khapraha, and *tappa* Saremu. The Gúmti and the Sai flow through the *tahsil*, as also a number of small streamlets and drainage channels. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses the *tahsil*, which is also well supplied with road communications. Area, according to the latest official statement, 334 square miles, of which 327 square miles are assessed for Government revenue or quit-rent. Of the assessed area, 233·6 square miles are returned as cultivated, 67·2 square miles cultivable, and 26·2 square miles barren. Total amount of Government land revenue, £30,056, or including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £35,563. Amount of rent, including local cesses paid by the cultivators, £56,329. Population (1872) 276,772; (1881) 322,315, namely, males 161,992, and females 160,323, showing a total increase in the nine years of 37,567, or 13 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 285,002; Muhammadans, 37,201; and 'others,' 112. Of the 822 towns and villages comprising the *tahsil*, 644 contained less than five hundred inhabitants, 30 from five hundred to a thousand, 46 from one to three thousand, and 2 with upwards of three thousand inhabitants.

Jaunpur.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 25° 45′ 31″ N., and long. 82° 43′ 38″ E., on the left or northern bank of the river Gúmti, about 15 miles above its junction with the Sái. Population (1872) 35,003; (1881) 42,845, namely, 25,920 Hindus, 16,832 Muhammadans, 92 Christians, and 1 'other.' The Census Report states that the actual town of Jaunpur had a population in 1872 of 25,727, and in 1881 of 27,032 on an area of 820 acres. But to keep within the definition of a town it was impossible to demarcate the suburban houses separated only by gardens, ruins, building sites, etc.

Jaunpur is a very ancient city, the former capital of a considerable Muhammadan kingdom, which once extended from Budáun and Etáwah to Behar. It abounds in splendid architectural monuments, most of which belong to the Pathán period, when the rulers of Jaunpur made themselves independent of Delhi, and founded an important local dynasty. (See JAUNPUR DISTRICT.) The fort of Firoz, an irregular quadrangular building overlooking the north of the Gúmti, consists of a stone wall built round an artificial [illegible]

profusely in the walls. The towers and last remaining buildings in the fort were blown up after the Mutiny of 1857, and nothing now exists but the shell. The date of the fort may be placed about 1360. The *hamams* or baths of Ibráhím, which commemorate the name of the great Jaunpur Sultán, were constructed about 1420. The Atala Masjid or mosque, also built by Ibráhím, in 1418, has now nothing left but a rich screen, flanked by ragged pinnacles. It occupies the site of a Hindu temple, attributed to Rájá Jai Chand. The Dariba mosque, built by two of Ibráhím's governors, has a domed hall and two wings, masked by a low façade of the peculiar Jaunpur type. A quarter of a mile from the city, some large piers, upholding a screen of great beauty, mark the site of another of Ibráhím's mosques, the Jinjiri Masjid. The Lál Darwáza, erected by Bíbí Rájí, the queen of Mahmúd, about 1450, is still in good preservation, with handsome cloisters and gates. The Jáma Masjid or great mosque of Hassan, completed after his fall in 1478, occupies the west side of a terrace, while domed gateways on the three other sides give access to a large quadrangle, 70 yards square, surrounded by a colonnade in two storeys. The splendid bridge over the Gúmti, erected by Mun'im Khán, governor under the Mughals, in 1569-73, measures 712 feet in length, and has four large central arches, with six of smaller span on each side. The cost has been estimated at £300,000. During the Mutiny of 1857, Jaunpur formed a centre of disaffection. (*See* JAUNPUR DISTRICT.)

The town still possesses a considerable trade, and is celebrated for its manufacture of perfumes from the flowers of the rose, jasmine, and screw pine. The manufacture of *papier-maché* has been recently introduced; but paper-making, which was formerly one of the principal industries of Jaunpur, is now almost totally extinguished in consequence of the competition of machine-made paper. The civil station is situated south of the Gúmti; the only public buildings are the courts of the magistrate and judge, church, *dâk* bungalow, jail, and police lines. The latter are the old cantonments used by the Native troops quartered at Jaunpur before the Mutiny. There are two railway stations on the Oudh and Rohilkhand line, at the city and at the civil station. Municipal revenue in 1882-83, £2985; from taxes, £2221, or 1s. $0\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population (42,845) within municipal limits.

Jaunsar Báwar (or *Kalsi*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a rugged triangular wedge of mountains, lying between the valleys of the Jumna and the Tons. Lat. 30° 31′ to 31° 1′ N., and long. 77° 45′ to 78° 7′ E. The whole tract is so hilly that scarcely a single level spot of a hundred yards occurs. The mountains, which belong to the Himálayan range, are largely covered with forests of *deodár*. The highest peak attains an

elevation of 9347 feet above sea-level. Area, 478 square miles, of which only 29 square miles were returned as cultivated in 1881. Population (1872) 40,046; (1881) 45,117, namely, males 25,400, and females 19,717. Of the 495 villages comprising the *tahsil*, 494 have less than five hundred inhabitants, and 1 from one to two thousand. Agriculture remains in a backward state, but irrigation from the minor torrents fertilizes the few cultivable patches upon the rugged hill-sides. The population consists chiefly of Dhúms, a tribe of low-caste aborigines, Hindus in creed, but scarcely raised above absolute barbarism. Polyandry prevails extensively; education is almost unknown; but crime is comparatively rare. A European detachment occupies the cantonment of CHAKRATA. The head-quarters of the *tahsil* are at KALSI. Land revenue, £2621; total Government revenue, £3017. In 1883, the *tahsil* contained 2 civil and 2 revenue courts, with 2 police stations.

Jaura.—State in Central India.—*See* JAORA.

Jávli.—Sub-division of Satára District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 419 square miles; number of villages 252, with 10,242 houses. Population (1872) 63,842; (1881) 63,729, namely, 31,946 males and 31,873 females. In 1881 Hindus numbered 61,451; Muhammadans, 1981; 'others,' 297. The Sub-division contains 5 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 69 men; village watchmen, 19. Land revenue, £9438.

Jáwad.—Town in the Sub-division of Nímach of the Native State of Gwalior, Western Málwá Agency, Central India. Lat. 24° 36′ N., long. 74° 54′ E.; 1400 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 7692. Stormed in 1818 by the British, and given over to Daulat Ráo Sindhia, to one of whose rebellious adherents it belonged. The town is surrounded by a stone wall, with 52 bastions, and has good gateways. Distant 12 miles due north from Neemuch (Nímach). A fair amount of trade is carried on; there are 30 *shroffs'* (bankers') shops. Well known for its red cloth. Post-office.

Jawadi.—A range of mountains in Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency, lying between 12° 15′ and 12° 40′ N. lat., and between 78° 40′ and 79° 6′ E. long., and extending over an area of 344 square miles, with 143 villages. Population (1871) 9296; (1881) 17,549. The Jawadís or Javádis separate the Tirupatúr *táluk* from the District of South Arcot. The eastern portion of the mountains is clothed with verdure to the summit. The range sinks into the plain near Singárapett. Average height above the sea, 3000 feet. The climate of the range and its valleys is unhealthy, and unsuited to Europeans. The plateau near Raddiúr, which is reached from Alangáyam, is lovely—endless downs, park like grass lands, dotted with tanks. In the slope of the hill, which faces Bommaikuppam and Mattrapalli, is a stream

which has the property of covering with petrifactions everything which is placed in its waters, as leaves, sticks, etc. The approaches are difficult, and exclusively by bridle-paths. Some portions of the forest land, containing teak, sandal-wood, etc., have been conserved by Government, and the nomadic system of cultivation has of late been restricted, and in some tracts suppressed. The greater part of the hills is inhabited by Malailis, a hill tribe, who style themselves Vellálars and Pachai Vellálars, the latter being distinguished from the former by the fact that the females are not allowed to tattoo themselves or to tie their hair in the knot called *kondai*. Both classes came originally from Kánchipuram.

Jawahír.—Tract of country in Kumáun, North-Western Provinces. —*See* JUHAR.

Jawálamukhi.—Ancient town in Dehra *tahsíl*, Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 52′ 34″ N., long. 76° 21′ 59″ E. Situated on the road from Kángra town to Nádáun, at the foot of a precipitous range of hills, forming the northern limit of the Beas (Biás) valley. Population (1881) 2424, namely, Hindus, 2217; Jains, 11; Muhammadans, 196; number of houses, 542. Once a considerable and opulent town, which still possesses solid ruins testifying to its former prosperity; now chiefly noticeable from the presence of a very holy shrine, surpassing in reputation even that of Kángra. The temple stands above certain jets of combustible gas, issuing from the ground, and kept constantly burning, as a manifestation of the goddess Devi. Seven centuries ago, the deity appeared to a Bráhman in the south, and bid him repair to this place, where he would find a perpetual flame issuing from the earth. The Bráhman obeyed, discovered the spot, and built a temple to the goddess. A conflicting and more ancient account, however, narrates that the flames proceed from the mouth of the Daitya king or demon, Jálandhara (see JALANDHAR DISTRICT), who was overwhelmed by Siva under a pile of mountains. The present temple certainly belongs to Devi. The devotion of centuries has enriched it with many costly offerings, amongst others a gilt roof, presented by Ranjít Singh in 1815. About 50,000 pilgrims attend the great festival in September or October. Six hot mineral springs occur in the neighbourhood, impregnated with common salt and iodide of potassium. The town still retains some commercial importance as an entrepôt for traffic between the hills and the plains. Principal export—opium from Kullu. Police station, post-office, school-house. *Sarái* erected by the Rájá of Patiála, attached to the temple. Eight *dharmsálas* or sanctuaries, with rest-houses for travellers. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £199, derived principally from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7¾d. per head.

Jawálápur.—Town in Sahāranpur District, North-Western Pro-

vinces. Lies in lat. 29° 55′ 33″ N., and long. 78° 9′ E., on the north bank of the Ganges Canal; distant from Rurkí (Roorkee) 14 miles north-east, and from Sahâranpur town 36 miles east. Population (1881) 15,196, namely, Hindus, 9574; Muhammadans, 5314; and Christians, 8. The town forms with HARDWAR a municipal union. Many of the Hindu residents are Bráhmans connected with the Hardwár temples, who have a perpetual feud with the Musalmán Rájputs. Police station, post-office, school, dispensary. Municipal revenue of Hardwár Union (1881–82), £2627; from taxes, £1523, or 1s. 1d. per head of population (28,106) within municipal limits.

Jawhár.—Native State under the Political Agency of Thána, in the Konkán, Bombay Presidency; situated between 19° 40′ and 20° 4′ N. lat., and between 73° 2′ and 73° 23′ E. long., within the geographical limits of Thána District. Jawhár State consists of two unequal patches of territory, the larger in the north-western part of Thána District, and the smaller in the north-eastern. The Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway just touches the western boundary of the smaller patch. Area, 534 square miles. Population (1881) 48,556, namely, 25,174 males and 23,382 females; density of population per square mile, 91; number of villages, 116; occupied houses, 8307; unoccupied, 1068. According to religion, the population is divided into 6869 Hindus, 501 Muhammadans, and 41,186 'others.' Since 1872, the population has increased by 11,150. Average revenue, inclusive of transit dues, £10,000.

Most of the State is a plateau raised about 1000 feet above the Konkán plain. Eastward the Sahyádris can be crossed by pack-bullocks through the Chinchutára and Gonde passes to the north, and through the Dhondmare and Shir passes to the south, of the high hill of Vatvad. The westerly route, about 35 miles from Jawhár to the Dáhánu Road station of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, crosses the Kasátwádi and Deng passes by a metalled road built by the British in 1872–74. Towards the south and west of the State, the country is in some places level, but the rest of the territory is elevated, and consists of the rocky and forest-covered tract that everywhere lies at the western foot of the Sahyádri range. Though its many fertile valleys contain numerous streams, their waters are not used for irrigation. The chief streams are the Deharji, the Surya, the Pinjali, and the Vagh. Except in the southern *mahál* (sub-division) of Malváda, the water supply fails as the hot season advances. Between June and October the rainfall is heavy. After the close of the rainy season till the end of December, the air retains a considerable degree of moisture. In January and February the dryness and heat increase, followed from March to June by a tolerably warm season. During the greater part of the year, the climate is malarious and

prevailing diseases are fever and ague. Good building stone is found. Besides timber, the country yields rice to a limited extent, and the coarser grains abundantly.

Up to 1294, the period of the first Muhammadan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhár was held by a Várlí, not a Kolí, chief. The first Kolí chief, Paupera, obtained his footing in Jawhár by a device similar to that of Dido, when she asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Kolí chief cut his hide into strips, and thus enclosed the territory of the State. In the succeeding centuries Jawhár had to carry on a struggle, first with the Portuguese, and afterwards with the Maráthás. The present (1884) chief, Malhár Ráo, *alias* Patang Sháh (adopted), is a Hindu of the Kolí tribe. He has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The succession follows the rule of primogeniture: there is no *sanad* authorizing adoption. In the case of the present chief, the adoption was recognised by the paramount power on receipt of a special payment or *nazaráná*. Jáya Mukney, the founder of the State, established himself as a freebooter in the country about Jawhár nearly 550 years ago. He was succeeded by his son Ním Sháh, on whom, about the year 134[illegible], the Emperor of Delhi conferred the title of Rájá. So important was this event in the history of Jawhár that the 5th of June 1343, the day on which the title was received, has been made the beginning of a new era, which is still used in public documents. The only place of interest in the State is the ruined fort of Bhopatgarh, about 10 miles south-east of Jawhár town.

The chief decides first-class magisterial and sessions cases, and hears appeals. There is a State jail; number of prisoners (1881), 92; regular police, 21 men. There are six schools, one of them in Jawhár town, with an average monthly attendance of 79 pupils. A dispensary was opened in 1878, and was attended in 1881 by 1133 patients.

Jawhár.—Chief t[illegible]f the Native State of Jawhár, in the Konkán, Bombay Presidency, [illegible]° 56′ N., and long. 73° 16′ E.; fifty miles north-east of Thána. [illegible] contains [illegible] houses. It is healthy, and free from excessive [illegible] evel, 1000 feet. Public office for the chief, [illegible] The water supply is [illegible]nty; but the wor[illegible] [illegible]rya reservoir and to bank a low piece [illegible] it.

[illegible]amangali.—[illegible] [illegible]y of the North [illegible] river, whi[illegible] [illegible]úmkúr [illegible] Iysore [illegible] [illegible]ining [illegible] trict of [illegible] ay- [illegible] and [illegible] Its [illegible] d

Jeddya Gowden.—Mountain in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 40′ to 11° 51′ N., long. 78° 42′ to 78° 53′ E.

Jehlam (*Jahlam, Jhelum*).—River in the Punjab; the most westerly of the five streams from which the Province derives its name. It is also known as the Bihet or Bitasta, corruptions of its Sanskrit name *Vitasta*, which Alexander's historians Græcized into Hydaspes, but Ptolemy more correctly as Bidaspes. The Jehlam rises in Kashmír State, among the mountains forming the north-eastern boundary of the valley, and, after flowing in a south-westerly course, forms a junction with the streams which have their origin in the Pír Panjál range. It then passes through the picturesque string of lakes in the neighbourhood of Srínagar or Kashmír city, and flows thenceforth above the level of the lower valley, being confined by high banks like those of the Po. Before entering the Walar Lake, it receives the waters of a considerable tributary, the Sind, which rises in the northern mountains. The united stream then pours through the snow-clad Pír Panjál range by the narrow pass of Barámula, which forms an outlet for the entire basin of the Kashmír valley. A vast lake at one time probably filled the whole of this great central hollow in the Himálayan system; but the outlet has been gradually worn down by the escaping flood, till only the lowest portion of the valley now remains covered with water. The distance from the source to the lower mouth of the Barámula Pass may be estimated at about 130 miles, of which 70 are navigable. The river has a breadth of 420 feet at Barámula.

At Muzaffarábád, just before entering British territory, the Jehlam receives the Kishan Gangá, a river of at least equal length, which rises in Baltistán or Little Tibet, and drains an extensive valley among the Northern Himálayas. It next forms the boundary between the Kashmír State and the British Districts of Hazára and Ráwal Pindi, flowing in a narrow rocky bed, shut in by mountains on either side. Numerous rapids here render navigation impossible, though large quantities of timber are floated down from Kashmír. A handsome suspension bridge at Kohála in Hazára conveys the Kashmír road across the river. Below Dangalli, 40 miles east of Ráwal Pindi, the Jehlam becomes navigable. Passing into Jehlam District, it skirts the outlying spurs of the Salt Range, and finally debouches upon the plains a little above the town of Jehlam, about 250 miles from its source. Below Jehlam, inundation of the lowlands begins to be possible, and low sandy islands stud the wide bed of the stream. After a south-westerly course of more than 100 miles, during which the river divides the District of Jehlam from those of Gujrát and Sháhpur, it enters the latter District entirely, and trends thenceforth more directly southward. The width in this portion of its course averages 800 yards in flood, dwindling down during the winter months to less

Sudden freshets occur after heavy rains, and cause frequent inundations over the lowlands, greatly increasing the productive power of the soil. The Jehlam next enters the District of Jhang, where it preserves the same general characteristics, but with a wider valley, bounded by the high uplands known as the *bár*. It finally joins the Chenáb (Chináb) at Timmu, in lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 72° 12′ E., 10 miles to the south of Maghiáná, after a total course of not less than 450 miles, of which about 200 lie within British territory. The current in the plains has an average rate of 4 miles per hour. The wedge of land between the Jehlam and the Chenáb is known as the Jech Doáb; while the tract stretching westward to the Indus bears the name of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb.

The principal towns upon the Jehlam are Kashmír or Srínagar (situated on one of its lacustrine expansions), Jehlam, Pind Dádan Khán, Miáni, Bherá, and Sháhpur. According to General Cunningham, the point where Alexander crossed the Hydaspes may be identified with Jalálpur in Jehlam District; while nearly opposite, on the Gujrát bank, stands the modern battle-field of Chiliánwálá. Bridges of boats cross the river at Jehlam and Pind Dádan Khán, and at a point just below its junction with the Chenáb. The permanent railway bridge of the Northern Punjab State Line also crosses at the town of Jehlam. For further particulars, see HAZARA, RAWAL PINDI, JEHLAM, GUJRAT, SHAHPUR, and JHANG DISTRICTS, and KASHMIR STATE.

Jehlam.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab (Panjáb), lying between 32° 26′ and 33° 15′ N. lat., and between 71° 51′ and 73° 50′ E. long. Jehlam is a District in the Ráwal Pindi Division. It stands ninth in order of area and eighteenth in order of population among the thirty-two Districts of the Province, comprising 3·67 per cent. of the total area, 3·14 per cent. of the total population, and 2·50 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. It is bounded on the north by Ráwal Pindi District; on the east by the river Jehlam; on the south by the river Jehlam and Sháhpur District; and on the west by Bannu and Sháhpur Districts. Area, 3910 square miles; population (1881) 589,373 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at Jehlam town, which is also the chief centre of population and commerce in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Jehlam forms the south-eastern portion of that rugged Himálayan spur known as the Salt Range, which extends between the Indus and Jehlam rivers into the borders of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb. Although its surface is not so wild as the mountain region of Ráwal Pindi, it yet presents a general appearance of great beauty and sublimity, relieved in places by smiling patches of cultivated valley. The backbone of the District is formed by the Salt Range, a double line of parallel hills, mainly composed of red sandstone and

carboniferous rocks, running in two long forks from east to west throughout its whole breadth. At their foot lies a small strip of level soil, stretching along the banks of the Jehlam, and thickly dotted with prosperous villages, some of which receive and detain the fertilizing waters from the lower slopes. Above this favoured tract, the Salt Range rises in bold and striking precipices, broken by gorges of dull russet sandstone and grey gypsum, which contrast finely with the brilliant redness of the superficial soil. The latter peculiarity marks the presence of salt, from which the range derives its name, and which is mined in enormous quantities, under Government supervision, at Kheura. Some of the gorges are clothed with green brushwood, and traversed by trickling streams, at first pure and fresh, but soon impregnated with the saline matter over which they flow, and thus rendered worse than useless for purposes of irrigation.

Between the lines of hills lies a picturesque table-land, in which the beautiful little lake of Kallar Kahár nestles amongst the minor ridges —at one end a mimic dead sea, surrounded by bare and rocky hills, its banks encrusted with salt, and devoid of life or vegetation; at the other, a glistening lake, crowned by wooded heights, and alive with myriads of wildfowl. North of the Salt Range, again, the country extends upward *in an elevated plateau, diversified by countless ravines and fissures,* until it loses itself in the tangled masses of the Ráwal Pindi mountains. The drainage of the District is determined by a low central watershed, running north and south, at right angles to the Salt Range. The waters of the western portion find their way into the Sohán, and finally into the Indus; those of the opposite slope collect into small torrents, and empty themselves into the Jehlam, which skirts the District for 100 miles on its eastern and southern edge. This river is navigable for some distance above the town of Jehlam for the flat-bottomed craft of the country.

The mineral wealth of the Salt Range is considerable. Not only are building stones and marbles of great beauty produced in abundance, but there is a large variety of stones that supply lime. There is also gypsum for plaster of Paris, and various red earths and ochres occur which have value as colouring agents. Coal, sulphur, and petroleum are found, and many metals, including copper, gold, lead, and iron. This last occurs in the form of rich hematite, and is in some places so abundant that the rocks containing it disturb the indications of the magnetic compass. Finally, the range furnishes the greater portion of the salt-supply of the Punjab. With the exception of salt, indeed, little has yet been done to develope its mineral resources, the exceeding cost of carriage having been the great obstacle; but now that railway communication between Miáni and Lahore has lessened this difficulty, it is to be hoped that a region so fertile in mineral pro-

ducts will not be allowed to lie fallow. The Administration Report for 1878-79 (the latest return) shows salt mines at Kheura, Sardi, Makrách, Katha, and Játána, of which the first two alone were worked during the year, and yielded 3,241,508 *maunds;* and coal mines, at Makrách, Pidh, Dandot, and Kundal. The coal is generally of inferior quality, and its use commercially for fuel has hitherto not proved successful. Recently, however (1884), the mineral has been extensively purchased by the railway authorities at Pind Dádan Khán. The seams excavated are those at Makrách, where there is an outcrop on the surface, said to be of a good hard quality. Sulphuret of lead or galena is found in small nodules in two or three localities. It is chiefly found in clefts in the most inaccessible precipices of the hills.

History.—The early annals of Jehlam present more points of interest than its records in modern times, since it can claim a mention both in the semi-mythical geography of the *Mahábhárata* and in the more veracious pages of Alexander's historians. Hindu tradition represents the Salt Range as the refuge of the Pándavas during the period of their exile; and every salient point in its scenery is connected with some legend of the national heroes. On the other hand, modern research has decided that the conflict between Alexander and Porus took place at some point within the present District; though the exact spot at which the Macedonian king effected the passage of the Jehlam (or Hydaspes) has been hotly disputed. General Cunningham is probably correct in supposing that the real site of the crossing was at Jalálpur, which he identifies with the city of Bukephala; and that the battle with Porus—a Greek corruption of the name Purusha—took place at Mong, on the Gujrát side, close to the field of Chiliánwálá. But when the brief light cast upon the District by Arrian and by Curtius has been withdrawn, we have little information with reference to its condition, until the Musalmán conquest brought back literature and history to Upper India.

The Janjúahs and Játs, who, along with other tribes, now hold the Salt Range and the northern plateau respectively, appear to have been the earliest inhabitants. The former are doubtless pure Rájputs, while the Játs are perhaps their degenerate descendants. The Ghakkars seem to represent an early wave of conquest from the east, and they still inhabit a large tract in the east of the District; while the Awáns, who now cluster in the western plain, are apparently later invaders from the opposite quarter. The Ghakkars were the dominant race at the period of the first Muhammadan incursions; and they long continued to retain their independence both in Jehlam itself and in the neighbouring District of RAWAL PINDI, where the history of the tribe will be found more fully traced. During the flourishing period of the Mughal dynasty, the Ghakkar chieftains were among the most

prosperous and loyal vassals of the house of Bábar. But after the collapse of the Delhi Empire, Jehlam fell, like its neighbours, under the sway of the Sikhs. In 1765, Gújar Singh defeated the last independent Ghakkar prince, and reduced the wild mountaineers of the Salt Range and the Murree (Marri) Hills to subjection. His son succeeded to his dominions, until 1810, when he fell before the irresistible power of Ranjít Singh. Under the Lahore Government, the dominant classes of Jehlam suffered much from fiscal exactions; and the Janjúah, Ghakkar, and Awán families gradually lost their landed estates, which passed into the hands of their Ját dependants. The feudal power declined and slowly died out, so that at the present time hardly any of the older chieftains survive, while their modern representatives hold no higher posts than that of village head-men. In 1849, Jehlam passed, with the rest of the Sikh territories, into the power of the British. Ranjít Singh, however, had so thoroughly subjugated the wild mountain tribes who inhabited the District, that little difficulty was experienced in reducing it to working order; and the subsequent history of Jehlam has been purely fiscal and administrative.

The country is still studded with interesting relics of antiquity, amongst which the most noticeable are the ruined temples of Katás, built about the 8th or 9th century of our era, and perhaps of Buddhist origin. Other religious ruins exist at Malot and Siva-Gangá; while the ancient forts of Rohtás, Girjhak, and Kusák, standing on precipitous rocks in the Salt Range, are of deep interest for the military historian. Indeed, the position of Jehlam on the great north-western highway, by which so many conquerors have entered India, from the Greek to the Mughal, has necessarily made it a land of fortresses and guarded defiles, and has turned its people into hereditary warriors.

Population.—The Census of 1855, which was the first enumeration of the inhabitants, disclosed a total population of 429,420 persons. In 1868, while the area remained practically identical, the number of inhabitants had increased to 500,988, showing a total gain, for the thirteen years, of 71,568 persons, or 16·66 per cent. The last Census in 1881 disclosed a population of 589,373, showing a further increase since 1868 of 88,385, or 14·99 per cent. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3910 square miles, containing 6 towns and 950 villages; total number of houses, 81,292, of which 72,013 were occupied and 9279 unoccupied; number of families, 131,753. Total population, 589,373, namely, males 313,448, and females 275,925; proportion of males, 53·2 per cent. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 151; villages or townships per square mile, 0·24; persons per village, 616; houses per square mile, 21; persons per occupied house, 8·19. The increase of density during the twenty-

six years between 1855 and 1881 has amounted to 41 persons per square mile. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males 127,159, and females 111,111; total children, 238,270, or 40·43 per cent.: 15 years and upwards, males 186,289, and females 164,814; total adults, 351,103, or 59·57 per cent. According to religion, Jehlam is a stronghold of Islám, as many as 516,745 persons, or 87·68 per cent., being returned as Musalmáns. The Hindus number only 60,949, or 10·34 per cent. The Sikhs have left few traces of their supremacy in the composition of the people, as they now number only 11,188, or 1·89 per cent. The remainder is made up of 58 Jains, 416 Christians, 16 Pársís, and 1 unspecified.

With reference to ethnical divisions, the chief Hindu tribes are the Bráhmans, Khattrís, and Aroras. The former caste numbers 10,010, sub-divided with the usual nicety into minor branches, none of which will eat or intermarry with another. The Khattrís (35,941) are the traders and money-lenders of Jehlam, replacing the Baniyás throughout the Sind Ságar Doáb. The Aroras (12,345) are a simple agricultural tribe. Amongst the clans and castes now almost exclusively Muhammadans, the Játs claim first notice, both by their numbers and their agricultural importance. They hold the whole central region to the north and south of the Salt Range, the hills themselves being the home of the Janjúahs. The general reputation for industry which they possess elsewhere follows them here; and they proved loyal during the events of 1857. Their total numbers in Jehlam District are returned at 88,371 in the Census Report of 1881. The Awáns rank first in numerical order with a total of 92,856 persons, the tribe under this name being almost peculiar to this District and Ráwal Pindi. They are essentially a tribe of the Salt Range, where they once held independent possessions of very considerable extent, and in the western and central portions of which they are still the dominant race. They are also found in considerable numbers in other Districts, where, however, they are commonly called Játs. A romantic interest is thrown around them by the conjecture that they represent the descendants of Alexander's army; though they themselves put forward a still more apocryphal genealogy from the son-in-law of the Prophet. The Rájputs, who are closely allied to the Játs, are returned at 53,279, the dominant clans being the Janjúahs (9964), Marihás (15,199), and Bhattís (10,430). The Gújars (18,924), who farther south form a pastoral tribe with a bad reputation for cattle-lifting, are here a body of thriving and honest agriculturists, with a fine manly physique, and considerable landed possessions around the town of Jehlam. The Kashmírís are returned at 9672; large numbers of them arrive every winter in search of harvest work, and return home when the summer sets in. The other principal tribes are the Ghakkars (9920), the ancient rulers of the Cis-Indus Salt

Range tract. They make capital soldiers, and are described as the best light cavalry in Upper India, and as good but not first-class agriculturists. Many also work as coolies on the railway. The Arains, 15,470 in number, are admirable cultivators and market gardeners. The Khokars, though numerically unimportant (1745), possess great social distinction, and are ordinarily considered a Rájput tribe, under which heading or that of Játs most of them have returned themselves. Total Khokars, including Rájputs and Játs, 5964. One of their ancestors founded the town of Pind Dádan Khán, which he called after his own name, and which has become the chief centre of the salt trade. The family lost most of their possessions in 1849, but has since been permitted to regain some part of its former property. The lower artisan and menial castes are nearly all Muhammadans by religion. The most important of these are—Chuhrás, sweepers and scavengers, 25,027; Tarkhans, carpenters, 14,824; Kumbhárs, potters, 10,031; Lohárs, blacksmiths, 9970; Naís, barbers, 10,569; and Muchís, tanners and leather workers, 11,222. These castes are all village servants, receiving the customary payment for their services in the shape of a share of the harvest, instead of in money. The Muhammadans of pure descent, as distinguished from the descendants of converted Hindus, are—Sayyids, 14,663; Mughals, 11,222; Shaikhs, 8412; and Patháns, 4618. Of the Christian population, numbering 406 in 1881, 368 were returned as Europeans or Eurasians, and 48 as natives. The American Presbyterian Mission has had a branch mission at Jehlam town since 1874, with a congregation numbering about 25 converts.

Jehlam District contained in 1881, six towns containing a population exceeding five thousand — namely, JEHLAM, 21,107; PIND DADAN KHAN, 16,724; LAWA, 6245; TALAGANG, 6236; CHAKWAL, 5717; and BHAUN, 5080. The urban population accordingly amounted to 61,109, or 10·4 per cent. of the District total. Jehlam and Pind Dádan Khán are important trade centres for the surrounding neighbourhood. Of the 956 towns and villages in the District in 1881, the Census Report returned 321 as having less than two hundred inhabitants; 287 with from two to five hundred; 189 from five hundred to a thousand; 115 from one to two thousand; 30 from two to three thousand; 8 from three to five thousand; 4 from five to ten thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 with upwards of twenty thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the male population exceeding 15 years of age is classified as follows by the Census:—(1) Professional class, including Government officials, civil and military, and the learned professions, 9982; (2) domestic and menial class, 4712; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 8553; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 99,879; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 41,873; (6) indefinite and non-productive class,

comprising general labourers, 15,140; (7) unspecified, 6150. The language in common use is Panjábí, which is returned as being spoken by 584,073 out of the 589,373 inhabitants of the District.

The village houses are almost universally built of mud or sun-dried bricks, one storey high and flat-roofed. Where stones are abundant, they are often built up into the mud walls, in the rough. Recently a few of the leading head-men have built new houses of squared and dressed stone, and nearly all the new mosques in the wealthier villages are now so built. Most houses have a yard in front, which is commonly walled in, but sometimes only set round with a loose thorn hedge. This contains the feeding troughs for cattle. Inside, the houses are kept scrupulously clean. The walls are plastered with cow-dung and polished, or sometimes whitewashed. Generally the pots and pans are arranged upon shelves or recesses. Most houses contain a store-bin for grain. The furniture consists of the ordinary cooking utensils, a few beds, stools, spinning wheels, a handmill for grinding, and also probably one or two baskets to hold clothes in. Some of the more advanced head-men have recently taken to the use of English glass and earthenware of a strong coarse kind. The prettiest things about the upper class of houses are the carved doorways, and the inlaid and painted ceilings of wood. Both are the work of common carpenters, but they are often really artistic and beautiful. The staple food of the people is wheat and *bájra*, with maize, rice, *moth*, and barley as an occasional change. The richer classes vary their diet by the addition of some sweetmeats, or a *pillau* of rice and meat. Meat is eaten by all who can afford it, and milk is largely consumed at all times.

Agriculture.—Of a total area of 3910 square miles or 2,502,400 acres, according to the latest quinquennial statistics published by the Punjab Government in 1878–79, 1333 square miles or 853,120 acres were returned as under cultivation in that year; 331 square miles or 211,840 acres as cultivable but not under tillage; and no less than 2246 square miles or 1,437,440 acres as uncultivable waste. In 1882–83, the total crop area (including lands yielding two harvests in the year) was 1644⅓ square miles or 1,052,408 acres. The staple crops are wheat in the spring harvest, and *bájra* in the autumn. The area under each, in 1871–72, was 325,129 acres of the former, and 180,425 of the latter. In 1882–83, wheat occupied 259,581 acres, and *bájra* 246,152 acres. The other agricultural products are cereals and oil-seeds. Cotton was largely grown during the American war, but since the decline in prices the villagers have returned to their more familiar crops, only 17,295 acres of this staple being planted in 1871–72. Since then, the area under cotton has considerably increased, the area cultivated in 1882–83 being 30,993

acres. The common coarse vegetables of India are abundant, though fruits and European garden plants have found little favour as yet.

There is no extensive system of irrigation in Jehlam, but 24,937 acres were watered by private enterprise in 1878–79. Wells are used in the fertile strip between the Salt Range and the river, and among the ravines. In many cases each well supplies only a very few acres; but these are plentifully manured and tilled like a garden, so as to produce a perpetual succession of sub-tropical vegetables and fruit throughout the year. In the fissured table-land to the north of the Salt Range, irrigation is more commonly practised by damming up the ravines, so as to retain the water and at the same time procure a rich deposit of sediment. The construction of these dams often demands both capital and energy. The largest are relics of a time when the District was in the hands of great landowners; but the security of British rule has induced the people themselves to turn their attention once more to similar works, and many new ones have lately been undertaken, with most profitable results. The agricultural stock of the District is approximately returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 229,653; horses, 5763; ponies, 711; donkeys, 22,815, sheep and goats, 275,845; camels, 9399; ploughs, 41,731. The condition of the peasantry is on the whole prosperous. Debt is comparatively rare; and the chief cause of poverty, where it exists, is the excessive sub-division of the soil. In former years, although primogeniture was unknown, many of the leading families contrived to keep their estates undivided by the simple method of fighting amongst themselves until only a single representative was left.

Under the restrictive regulations of British rule, constant distribution of property amongst the surviving heirs is rapidly reducing the richer houses to the level of their neighbours. The ancient communal type of village tenure has been generally replaced by the system known as *bhdydchdra*, under which the rights and liabilities of each shareholder are determined, not by ancestral custom, but by the amount of land which he possesses. Some of the villages are much larger than in the average of Indian Districts, a single one containing as many (in an extreme case) as 90,000 acres; and their great size gives a social importance to their head-men which is unknown amongst the peasantry elsewhere. Out of a total of 979 estates at the recent revision of the land settlement in 1880–81, 858 were held under *bhdydchdra*, 74 under *pattiddri*, and 47 under *zamindári* tenure.

The land is almost equally divided between tenants-at-will and those with rights of occupancy. The total male adult population is returned at 98,227, but the number of persons entirely dependent on the soil is 318,019, or 55·8 per cent. of the whole population of the District. Government assessment in 1881, including cesses and rates levied on the land, £83,545. Total estimated rental, including cesses

paid by the cultivators, £162,106. Rents, of course, vary with the nature of the crop for which the soil is suited. But they nearly all take the form of payments in kind which are fixed by custom, and are uniform over large areas. These rents are nearly always the same for all classes of tenants. Everywhere the shares allotted as fees for the village menials (*kamins*), such as carpenters, potters, barbers, blacksmiths, etc., are first deducted. These fees vary from 10 to 12 per cent., except in Talagang *tahsíl*, where they amount to from 6 to 8 per cent. The remainder of the produce is divided as follows:—In Jehlam *tahsíl*, the landlord and tenant share and share alike, both in the grain and straw. In Pind Dádan Khán and Chakwál *tahsíl*, the landlord generally takes half the grain, except in a few villages where his share is only two-fifths. In Talagang, the landlord's share varies from one-fourth to one-half, the common rate for unirrigated lands being one-third. The highest money rate is that for opium lands, which bring in from £2 to £4 per acre. Other rents rule as follows:—Wheat, from 8s. to 12s. per acre, irrigated—from 6s. to 8s., unirrigated; inferior grains, from 4s. to 8s., irrigated—from 2s. to 4s., unirrigated; cotton, from 10s. to £1; rice, from 10s. to £1. Wages are chiefly paid in kind. In a good harvest, labourers earn as much as 6d. per diem, or its equivalent in grain. Prices were returned as follows in January 1871:—Wheat, 16 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. per cwt.; barley, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10¾d. per cwt. In January 1883, prices ranged much lower, and were returned as follows:—Wheat, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; flour, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; barley, 41 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 9d. per cwt.; gram, 29½ *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9½d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; *joár*, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 38 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. per cwt.; rice (best), 5½ *sers* per rupee, or 20s. 4½d. per cwt.; cotton (cleaned), 3½ *sers* per rupee, or 32s. 8d. per cwt.; sugar (refined), 3 *sers* per rupee, or 37s. 4d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—No statistics are available for the general trade of the District, which is chiefly concentrated in the towns of Jehlam and Pind Dádan Khán. The exports include—salt, for the south; food-grains, principally wheat, sent for the most part to Multán, Sind, and Ráwal Pindi; silk and cotton goods, for the wilder country to the north and west; with brass and copper ware for the whole neighbourhood. Stone is exported by boat as far as Multán. The Tarrakawála quarries have been leased by the Punjab Northern State Railway, and the stone is being used in the construction of the Lahore Cathedral. Timber floated down the Jehlam river from the mountains is largely exported in country carts by railway and by water. Merchants travel about the District buying up hides, of which the best are sent

to Calcutta for export, and the inferior ones to Amritsar. The imports are English piece-goods and metal from Amritsar and Multán, woollen fabrics from Kashmír, and Central Asiatic stuffs from Peshá war. A miscellaneous export and import trade is also carried on with Kashmír.

Salt is procured in immense quantities from the mines in the central range, which are now worked under Government supervision, and managed by a duly qualified engineer. The net revenue from this source amounted in 1871-72 to the sum of £362,193, and in 1882-83 to £293,400. A quarter of a million of tons per annum can be turned out if necessary. Gypsum is also found in the same range; and an inferior lignite exists in the oolitic and tertiary beds, but the coal is of poor quality, and has not yet been mined to advantage. A further attempt is now being made to work the mineral at the Makrách beds, and it is being purchased largely for railway purposes by the Northern Punjab State Railway.

The local manufactures and industries comprise boat-building, at Jehlam town and Pind Dádan Khán; a rough glass manufacture by a colony of Ghakkars at or near Sultánpur; copper and brass manufactures; silk and cotton weaving; unglazed pottery of a remarkably strong and good quality, etc. Gold-washing is carried on in the beds of the numerous *nálás* or streams which flow through the Salt Range.

The principal means of communication is the Grand Trunk Road, from Lahore to Peshá war, which passes through the District from north to south, traversing a wild and tortuous country, and heavily taxing the skill of the engineers. It is the only metalled line in Jehlam, and is 30 miles in length within the District; but there are 882 miles of unmetalled roads, forming a complete network of intercommunication. The Northern State Railway from Lahore to Peshá war runs across the south-eastern corner of the District, for a distance of 28 miles, having stations at Jehlam, Dína, Domeli, and Sohá wa, while a short branch of 5 miles connects Miáni with the Kheura salt mines. A railway bridge crosses the river at Jehlam, with a sub-way for animals and foot passengers. The river Jehlam is navigable for 127 miles along the eastern frontier. A line of telegraph runs by the side of the trunk road with an office at each station; and there is also an imperial telegraph office at Jehlam cantonment. Imperial post-offices, with money order and savings bank branches, are stationed at eighteen towns and villages. Two great religious fairs, the one Hindu and the other Muhammadan, take place at Katás and at Choya Sáidan Sháh respectively, on the 9th of April and two following days. As many as 50,000 pilgrims are estimated to be present at each festival.

Administration.—The ordinary administrative staff of Jehlam consists of 1 Deputy Commissioner, 2 Assistant and 1 extra-Assistant C is-

sioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, with their deputies, and 3 *munsifs*. The total revenue (in which the profits of the salt mines are not included) amounted in 1872–73 to £70,299, of which £59,766 was derived from the land-tax. In 1882–83, the gross revenue was returned at £87,729, of which £69,053 was contributed by the land-tax. The other principal items are stamps and local rates. The incidence of the land revenue is unusually light. In 1882, the imperial police numbered 403 officers and men; municipal police, 104; cantonment police, 8; and village watch, 439. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in 1882 of 954 men, being an average of 1 constable to every 618 of the population and every 5 square miles of area. The District jail at Jehlam contained an average daily population in 1872 of 275 prisoners, and in 1882 of 253 prisoners. Education has made great strides of late years. In 1872–73, the roll of children under instruction showed a total of 8784, or more than double the whole number of persons who could read and write in 1868. There were 18 girls' schools in the District, with a roll of 678 pupils, founded by the benevolent exertions of Bedi Khem Singh, a native gentleman who has greatly interested himself in female education. In 1882–83, the total number of schools under the control of the Education Department was 50, attended by a total of 4285 pupils. Of these 8 were girls' schools, with an attendance of 258 pupils. There are also 6 girls' schools conducted by the American Presbyterian Mission at Jehlam town. Besides these, there were returned 1159 indigenous schools, with an attendance of 13,854. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into the 4 *tahsíls* of Jehlam, Pind Dádan Khán, Chakwál, and Talagang; and into 10 *parganás*, containing an aggregate of 939 estates, owned by 49,866 registered proprietors or coparceners; average land revenue from each estate, £74, 17s. 3¾d.; from each proprietor, £1, 8s. 2¼d. For police purposes, the District is divided into 15 police circles (*thánás*), and 16 subordinate stations (*chaukís*). Municipalities are established at Jehlam, Pind Dádan Khán, Chakwál, and Talagang. Their united revenue for the year 1871–72 amounted to £4080, being at the average rate of 1s. 2½d. per head of population. In 1882, the municipal revenue amounted to £4606, the average incidence of taxation being 1s. 2¼d. per head.

Sanitary Aspects.—Jehlam is, on the whole, a healthy District, though the miners of the Salt Range are subject to several distressing complaints (including fever, ophthalmia, and pulmonary diseases), and are, generally speaking, a sickly-looking and feeble community. Goitre is not uncommon, and guinea-worm causes much trouble on the northern plateau. The chief endemic disease is fever, which settles principally in the plain country around Pind Dádan Khán. The small-

pox mortality is also unusually high. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 was 14,772, or 29 per thousand of the population, and in 1882, 19,628, or 33 per thousand. Of these deaths, the proportion due to fever was 19·36 per thousand in 1872, and 25·70 per thousand in 1882. No observations are available with reference to the temperature of the District. The average annual rainfall for a period of 20 years ending 1881, was 24·11 inches. The rainfall in 1881 was only 17·10 inches, or 7·01 inches below the average. [For further information regarding Jehlam, see the *Settlement Report of the District*, by Mr. A. Brandreth, C.S. (1865); with the *Revised Settlement Report*, by Major Wace and Mr. R. G. Thomson, C.S. Also the *Gazetteer of Jehlam District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government, 1883-84; *Census Report of the Punjab* for 1881, and the various *Provincial and Departmental Administrative Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jehlam.—Eastern *tahsil* of Jehlam District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 18' to 33° 15' N., long. 73° 9' to 73° 50' E. Area, 885 square miles, with 422 towns and villages, and 20,373 houses. Population (1881) 174,169, namely, males 96,479, and females 77,690; average density, 197 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 152,916; Hindus, 17,465; Sikhs, 3424; 'others,' 364. Number of families, 38,347. Total revenue of the *tahsil*, £18,865. Of the total area of 559,773 acres assessed for Government land revenue, 179,148 acres were returned as under cultivation in 1878-79. Of the remainder, 102,500 acres were grazing land, 55,200 acres cultivable, but not under tillage, and 222,895 acres uncultivable waste. The administrative staff, including the District head-quarters, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with a Judicial Assistant, and an Assistant Commissioner, a *tahsildár*, and a *munsif*. These officers preside over 5 civil and 4 criminal courts. Number of *thánás* or police circles, 4; strength of regular police, 104 men, besides 128 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Jehlam (*Jhílam*).—*Town, municipality, cantonment, and administrative head-quarters of Jehlam District, Punjab.* Lat. 32° 35' 26" N., long. 73° 46' 36" E. Situated on the northern or right bank of the Jehlam river. The population, including the suburbs and cantonments, which in 1868 was returned at 7393, had increased by 1881 to 21,107, the increase being mainly due to the impetus afforded by the Punjab Northern State Railway, which, prior to the extension of the line to Peshâwar, had for many years its terminus at Jehlam. Muhammadans numbered 11,369; Hindus, 7966; Sikhs, 1460; and 'others,' 312. Number of houses, 2318. Municipal income (1882-83), £1843, or 2s. 2½d. per head of the population (16,634, exclusive of the cantonment).

The present town of Jehlam is of modern origin, the old town having been on the left or opposite bank of the river. Under Sikh

rule the place was quite unimportant, being mainly occupied by a settlement of *mullás*, and at the time of annexation contained about 500 houses. It was then chosen as the site of a cantonment, and as the head-quarters of the civil administration of the District. For some years it was the seat of the Commissioner of the Division; but in 1850 the head-quarters of the Division were transferred to Ráwal Pindi. Under British rule, Jehlam has steadily advanced in prosperity, and is the entrepôt for most of the trade of the District. The salt traffic, however, which was the main source of this prosperity, has, since the completion of the Northern Punjab State Railway, been diverted to Lahore, but it has not materially affected the position of Jehlam as a place of commerce.

The native town is small, and traversed by two main streets at right angles to each other. There are no buildings of note; some of the houses with a river frontage are fairly constructed, but the town is principally composed of low-built mud houses; the streets are well paved and in most cases broad; the drainage and sanitary arrangements are satisfactory, and there is an ample water supply. The town has a good reputation for boat-building. The civil lines and public offices lie about a mile to the north-east of the town. The public buildings comprise the ordinary offices and courts, police station, jail, treasury, charitable dispensary, municipal hall, two *saráis* (native inns), and a handsome church (in the cantonment); also a fine public garden, with band-stand, deer-paddock, and lawn-tennis courts. A railway bridge of the Punjab State Railway crosses the Jehlam river at the town.

The cantonment is situated about a mile south-west of the town, in a desolate barren plain, almost entirely destitute of vegetation, owing to the hard and stony nature of the ground. The military strength of the garrison consisted in August 1883, of 50 regimental and staff officers, a regiment of Native cavalry 537 strong, and one of Native infantry 815 strong. Total population of cantonment (1881) 4473.

Jejuri.—Town and municipality in the Purandhar Sub-division of Poona (Puná) District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 18° 16′ N., long. 74° 12′ E. Population (1881) 3245; municipal revenue (1882–83), chiefly derived from a tax on pilgrims of 3d. each, £303; municipal expenditure, £292; incidence of municipal taxation per head, 1s. 9d. A place of Hindu pilgrimage.

Jellasore.—Town in Balasore District, Bengal.—*See* JALESWAR.

Jenkal-betta (*'Honey Rock Hill'*).—Magnificent peak of the Western Gháts, Hassan District, Mysore State. The precipitous rock is covered with honeycombs. A station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey.

Jerigurkhadi.—Native State, Khándesh Political Agency, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Jerimála.—Town in Kudlighi *táluk* of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 48′ 40″ N., long. 76° 33′ E. Now of no importance, but in the last century the residence of a family of powerful *pálegárs*, descended from Pennappa Náyak. The territory was reduced by Aurangzeb, who exacted increased tribute and military force. In 1752 the *pálegár* of Chitaldrúg conquered all the country belonging to the *pálegár* of Jerimála, who was obliged to serve the former with 500 *peons*, and pay tribute through him. When Haidar Ali captured Chitaldrúg in 1767, the Jerimála *pálegár* appealed to him, but was put to death by the *pálegár* of Chitaldrúg. The whole District was resumed by Tipú in 1787. The members of the *pálegár's* family fled, but regained possession of the country in 1791. When Jerimála was ceded to the Nizám of Haidarábád (Deccan) in 1799, the *pálegár* was allowed to rent this tract at its full value. In 1801 the country fell under the dominion of the British, a pension of £160 being granted to the members of the ruling family for their support. The pension is continued to their descendants.

Jerruck (or *Jhírak*).—Deputy Collectorate and Sub-division of Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 24° 4′ to 25° 26′ 30″ N., long. 67° 6′ 15″ to 68° 22′ 30″ E. Bounded on the north by the Sehwan Deputy Collectorate, part of Kohistán, and the Baran river; on the east and south by the Indus and its tributaries; on the west by the sea and Karáchí *táluk*. Area, 2997 square miles, or 1,918,155 acres, of which 96,847 are under cultivation, 121,850 cultivable, and the remainder uncultivable waste. Population (1881) 95,821. The Sub-division is divided into 3 *táluks*—viz. Tatta, Mírpur Sakro, and Ghorábárí—and sub-divided into 20 *tapás*. It contains 4 towns and 142 villages, only 4 of which have a population exceeding 800.

The northern portion of the Sub-division consists of a hilly waste, dotted with occasional lakes or *dhands;* this may also be said of a portion of the eastern side, bordering directly on the Indus, where are the Makli hills and the range on which the town of Jerruck is built; the southern portion stretches out in a flat alluvial plain, broken only by canals and branches of the Indus. Six of the older mouths of the river,—the Piti, Juna, Richhal, Hajámro, Kakaiwári, and Khedewári,—besides the Ghăro creek, lie within this Sub-division. The Hajámro in 1845 was so insignificant a stream as to preclude even small boats passing up; but from that time it began to increase in volume, and is now perhaps the largest mouth of the Indus. There is a beacon, 95 feet high at the eastern side of the entrance, which can be seen from a distance of 25 miles. Two Government pilot-boats are stationed inside the bar. The canals kept clear at Government expense number 49, with an aggregate length of 360 miles, and yield an [illegible] net income of £10,636. The largest of these are the [illegible]

SIAN. The *zamíndári* canals number 1321, but are all very small and short. Numerous torrents (*nais*) cause, after heavy rain, considerable loss of cattle, and occasional damage to the railway running from Kotri to Karáchí; while the floods which they produce by overfilling the *dhands* and canals are at times very serious. The largest of the *dhands* or lakes are the Kinjhar, Sonáhri, and Háláji. The climate and public health vary greatly in different parts of the Sub-division, the town of Jerruck itself being particularly salubrious, while Tatta and the country round are notorious for the ague, fever, and dysentery that prevail. Cholera is a not unfrequent and a destructive visitor. The ravages of small-pox have been checked by vaccination. The average yearly rainfall is only 7½ inches. Sea-fogs prevail over the coast tract to such an extent that wheat cannot be cultivated.

The geology, fauna, and flora of Jerruck do not differ materially from those of other parts of Karáchí District. Geologically, the soil of the Sub-division is alluvial deposit, except in the east and north-west. The wild animals found are the wolf, jackal, fox, hog-deer (*pharo*), hare, hyæna, lynx, and leopard. Ibex and ravine antelope are met with in the hilly portion. Among birds are many varieties of the wild duck, geese (among these the *kulam*), the flamingo, pelican, stork, crane, heron, curlew, and snipe; in the north, partridge, quail, and plover. Varieties of the *Saxicolæ* or stone-chat warblers are numerous, and of these the *Saxicola aurita* is the most beautiful bird, as regards plumage, to be seen in Sind. Snakes and scorpions are numerous. The dog of the Indus delta is large, and so ferocious as to make it dangerous for a stranger to approach. The bees of Hajámro are remarkable for the excellence of their honey, and for their curious habit of affixing their combs to maritime plants. Extraordinary numbers of field rats are found, which at times do incredible mischief to the crops. The rats construct granaries underground, and the cultivators, when grain is scarce, often dig up the stores. The one-humped camel is numerous; the delta-bred camel is smaller and lighter in limb than his Arabian congener. The Karmáti tribe breed a valuable description of camel. As elsewhere in Sind, the *babúl* (Acacia arabica) is the principal forest tree. The forests cover a total area of 25,074 acres; and yielded in 1873-74 a revenue, from grazing fees, sales of firewood, charcoal, etc., *babúl* pods for fodder, and cultivation of land within forest limits, of £1425. The forests were all planted between 1795 and 1828, by the Tálpur Mírs. The fisheries are 20 in number, yielding an average annual revenue of £305. The right of fishing is yearly sold by auction to the highest bidder.

The population of the Sub-division in 1872 was 92,902; and in 1881, 95,821, namely, males 52,451, and females 43,370. Classified according to religion in 1881, there were—Muhammadans, 82,506;

Hindus, 11,788; Sikhs, 1428; aboriginal tribes, 40; Christians, 38; Jews, 10; and Pársís, 11. In character, habits, dress, etc., the people of Jerruck do not differ from those of the rest of Karáchi District.

The administrative and revenue staff consists of a Deputy Collector and first-class Magistrate, assisted by 3 *mukhtiárkárs*, with the powers of a second-class magistrate; 2 *kotwáls*, who have certain magisterial powers, and supervise the jails; and 20 *tapádárs*, or excise officers. The only jails are the two subordinate lock-ups at Tatta and Keti. There are ten cattle-pounds. The Sub-division contained (1884) 8 criminal courts, 24 police stations (*thánás*), and 170 regular police. The civil suits (1874) numbered 359, involving a total amount of £3698; only three of the whole were for land, value £42.

The revenue of the Sub-division in 1873-74 was £21,077, being £18,489 imperial and £2588 local, derived as follows:—Imperial—land-tax, £14,815; *abkári* or excise, £1354; stamps, £734; postal department, £91; law and justice, £302; miscellaneous, £1193. Local—cesses on land and *sayer* or customs, £967, percentage on alienated lands, £48; pounds and ferries funds, £916, fisheries, £657. The Topographical Survey was completed in 1870, and a temporary settlement has been introduced in the Tatta *táluk*. Land is held on provisional or temporary leases in the two other *táluks*, the rate per acre ranging from 8s. for *mahsuli* (garden) land, 4s. for *charkhi*, 3s. for *sáilabi* and *mok* (flooded lands), 2s. for *baráni* (rain-irrigated) lands. The water rate is ¾d. per acre. The alienated land occupies an area of 96,000 acres, 21,000 of which are cultivated, and is distributed among 54 *jágirdárs*. The *seri* grants number 13, covering 250 acres; the number of *máfidárs* is 17.

There are 2 municipalities within the Sub-division, viz. Tatta and Keti, with an aggregate annual income (1882-83) of £1786. The number of Government schools is 7, with 645 pupils. There are dispensaries at Jerruck, Tatta, and Keti.

Two crops are reaped annually, the *kharíf* and *rabi*. Three-fourths of the whole cultivated area are under rice, and the remainder is divided in the usual proportions among the ordinary crops. The only speciality is the *san* (Crotalaria juncea), grown for its fibre, of which nets and fishing gear are made. Fishing is carried on in the Indus and in the *dhands*. The fish caught are *pala*, the larger and coarser river fish, and prawns. Rights of fishing are sold annually by auction to the highest bidder.

The trade of Jerruck is chiefly in agricultural products, the principal mart being Keti, whence exports of the value of about £280,000 are annually made. The rest of the Sub-division imports cotton cloth, metal work, spices, fruits, sugar, and grain; and exports agricultural produce and skins. The manufactures, though once of some

reputation—notably the Tatta chintzes and glazed pottery—now are of very small importance. More than 40 fairs are held in the Sub-division; 19 of the largest have an average attendance of 980, and last for a period of from one to fifteen days.

The roads of the Sub-division aggregate nearly 360 miles in length, 270 miles being trunk and postal lines. The great military road from Karáchí to Kotri runs, *viâ* Tatta, through the northern portion of Jerruck. There are here 20 *dharmsálás*. The ferries number 36, yielding annually about £400. The Indus Valley or Sind Railway passes through the Sub-division for about 63 miles, with 6 stations, at *Ran Pethani, Jangsháhi, Janábád, Jhimpír, Meting, and Bolári.* The telegraph line follows the railway route. There are 3 postal lines, with 5 non-disbursing and 3 branch offices.

The chief objects of antiquarian interest in the Jerruck Sub-division are the ruins of Bhámbore, a very ancient city of the 7th century; the Mári, a building of the 14th century; the Kalán Kot (or great fort) ruins, built in the 15th century, it is supposed, upon the site of a still more ancient stronghold. The most interesting remains of old buildings are the many tombs, fast hastening to decay, on the plateau of the Makli range of hills near Tatta. These ruins are described as a vast cemetery extending over 6 square miles, containing not less than a million of tombs, and believed to have been a sacred burial-ground for twelve centuries; among the largest tombs is the modest one of an Englishman, by name Edward Cooke, who died at Tatta in 1743, and who is supposed to have been a private merchant engaged in the silk trade.

Jerruck (or *Jhirak*).—Village in the Jerruck Sub-division Karáchí (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 25° 3′ 6″ N., long. 68° 17′ 44″. Population (1881) under 2000. The trade, since the opening of the Sind Railway diverted traffic from this part of the Indus, has fallen off greatly. Formerly there existed an active traffic with the mountain tribes, who brought sheep to exchange for grain, especially rice. The only local manufacture of marked excellence is that of camel saddles, and of strong and durable *susis* (or striped cloths). Jerruck stands on an eminence commanding the Indus from both military and commercial points of view; a position so advantageous that Sir Charles Napier regretted not having selected it for the European barracks instead of Haidarábád (Hyderábád, Sind). Jerruck has road communication with Kotri 24 miles, with Tatta 32 miles, and with Meting, a station of the Sind Railway, 13 miles. Subordinate court, post-office, and police station; 3 *dharmsálás* or rest-houses; Government school; subordinate jail; market; and dispensary.

Jesar.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás, in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. The area is 1¼ square mile. There

are 4 chiefs or *pagis.* The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £40; a tribute of £15 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Jessor.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 48′ and 23° 47′ N. lat., and between 88° 42′ and 89° 52′ E. long. Jessor District forms the north-eastern portion of the Presidency Division. It is bounded on the north and west by Nadiyá District; on the south by the newly-formed District of Khulná; and on the east by the District of Farídpur. Area (according to the Census of 1881, and from which all percentages and calculations bearing on population have been calculated), 2276 square miles. A later return from the Surveyor-General's Department, dated May 1885, gives the present area at 2925 square miles. Population (1881) 1,577,249 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at JESSOR town, locally called Kasbá, on the Bhairab river.

Physical Aspects.—Jessor forms the central portion of the delta between the Húglí and the united Ganges and Brahmaputra. It is a vast alluvial plain intersected by rivers and watercourses, which at places in the southern portion of the District spread out into large marshes. It naturally divides into two parts—one bounded north and west by an imaginary line drawn from Kesabpur village south of Jessor town to Muhammadpur on the Madhumatí; and a second lying between that line and the southern boundary of the District. The first of these portions is fairly dry, and beyond the reach of the tides; the second or central portion is swampy, and only passable on foot during the dry season. Formerly Jessor District comprised a third well-marked tract known as the Jessor Sundarbans, a tangled network of swamps and rivers, without tillage or population except in scattered reclamation tracts. This fluvial region is now included within the new District of KHULNA (*q.v.*), and will be dealt with in a distinct article. Its recent separation must be borne in mind when comparing the present account of Jessor District with previous descriptions. The northern portion of the District is verdant, with extensive groves of date-palms; villages are numerous and large; and the people are prosperous. In the central portion the population is sparse, the only part of the tract suitable for dwellings being the high land along the banks of rivers. The principal rivers of Jessor are—the Madhumatí (which forms the eastern boundary of the District), with its tributaries the Nabagangá, Chitrá, and Bhairab; the Kumár, the Kabadak, the Fatkí, and the Harihar. As in all deltaic tracts, the banks of the rivers are higher than the adjacent country. These river banks are covered in Jessor with villages and clumps of date-palms, which form a very characteristic feature in the scenery of the District. Within the last century, the rivers in the interior of Jessor have ceased to be true deltaic rivers; and whereas the

of the District formerly lay under water for several months every year, it is now reached only by unusual inundations. The Madhumatí and the Nabagangá are the only rivers which form considerable *chars*, or alluvial sandbanks. The tide reaches as far north as the latitude of Jessor town.

History.—The name Jessor is a corruption of Yashohara, which means 'fame-depriving;' and the origin of this title is thus explained. At the court of Dáúd Khán, the last Pathán king of Bengal, a certain Rájá named Vikramáditya held a high post. When the king was defeated by Akbar, Vikramáditya obtained a grant in the Sundarbans; and in that safe retreat held a large tract of country by force of arms, and established a new city, to which he took so much of the wealth and splendour of Gaur—part of it Dáúd's property—that he was said to have deprived the old capital of its fame. Vikramáditya was succeeded in the principality of Jessor by his son Pratápáditya, the popular hero of the Sundarbans, who gained pre-eminence over the twelve lords then holding possession of the southern part of Bengal along the coast, but he was eventually defeated and captured by Mán Singh.

The Rájás of Jessor or Chánchrá trace their origin to Bhábeswar Rái, a soldier in the army of Khán-i-Azam, an imperial general, who deprived Rájá Pratápáditya of several fiscal divisions (*parganás*), and conferred them on Bhábeswar. On the death of the latter in 1588, his son Mahtáb Rám Rái (1588–1619) succeeded him. During the war between Mán Singh and Pratápáditya, which ended, as has been said, in the defeat and capture of the latter, Mahtáb Rám Rái assisted Mán Singh, and at the close he retained the *parganás* made over to his predecessor. To him succeeded Kandarpá Rái (1619–49), who added considerably to the estates; and he in turn was followed by Manohar Rái (1649–1705), who is regarded as the principal founder of the family. The estate, when he inherited it, was of moderate size, but he acquired one *parganá* after another until, at his death, the property was by far the largest in the neighbourhood. On the death of Manohar, the estate went to Krishna Rám (1705–29), who was followed by Sukh Deb Rái (1729–45). The latter divided the estate into a three-quarters share and a one-quarter share, the former being called the Yusafpur, and the latter the Sayyidpur estate. The latter was given by Sukh Deb to his brother Syám Sundar, who died without issue, leaving it vacant. It was afterwards conferred by the East India Company upon a landholder (who had been dispossessed by the Nawáb of Bengal), in order that he might make a grant to the Company of certain lands near Calcutta. The possessor of the property in 1814, Hajjí Muhammad Moshin (who died the same year), made over the estate in trust for the Húglí Imámbára, which has ever since enjoyed its revenues. The Yusafpur estate was inherited in 1764 by Sríkánt Rái, who, at the time of the Permanent Settlement,

lost *pargand* after *pargand* until his family was left destitute and forced to fall back upon the bounty of the Government. To Srikánt succeeded, in 1802, Bánikánt, who died in 1817. His son Baradákánt, being a minor, the property was administered by the Court of Wards, who greatly increased its value. In 1823, the Government added to the estate the confiscated *pargand* of Sáhos, and since then has bestowed on the proprietor the title of Rájá Bahádur in recognition of services rendered during the Mutiny. Rájá Baradákánt died in 1880, leaving three sons, the eldest of whom, Ganynada Kant, succeeded to the title and estates.

British administration was completely established in the District in 1781, when the Governor-General ordered the opening of a court at Murali, near Jessor town. Previous to this, however, the revenue or financial administration (*díwání*) had been in the hands of the English, having been transferred to the East India Company with that of the rest of Bengal in 1765. The first Judge and Magistrate of the District was Mr. Henckell, who founded the market called after him, Henckellganj, and was the first to urge upon the Government the scheme of Sundarbans reclamation. (*See* SUNDARBANS.) To Mr. Henckell succeeded, in 1789, Mr. Rocke, who transferred the civil station from Murali to Jessor, where it still remains. Among the list of Collectors of Jessor is found the name of Mr. R. Thackeray, father of the novelist, who acted in that capacity for a few months in 1805.

The changes in jurisdiction in the District of Jessor have been very numerous. When first constituted, the magisterial jurisdiction extended over the present Districts of Farídpur and Jessor, and also included that portion of the Twenty-four Parganás which lies to the east of the Ichhámatí. After many transfers and rectifications of boundary, the District was in 1882 finally reduced to its present dimensions, the Sub-divisions of Khulná and Bágirhát in the south being erected into the new District of KHULNA (*q.v.*).

Population.—The population of the present area of the District of Jessor, as returned by the Census of 1872, was 1,451,507 persons. In 1881, the population was ascertained to be 1,577,249, showing an increase of 125,742, or 8·66 per.cent., in the nine years since 1872. The average pressure of the population on the soil throughout the District is 693 persons to the square mile; number of houses per square mile, 101·74; persons per house, 6·96. The density of the population varies greatly in different parts of the District; being high in the northern portions, and dwindling as we proceed southwards through the more recently inhabited tracts. Of the total population, 779,805 are males and 797,444 females; proportion of males, 49·9 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 15 years old—males 324,354, and females 297,628; total children, 621,982, or 39·4

per cent.: 15 years and upwards—males 455,451, and females 499,816; total adults, 955,267, or 60·6 per cent. The excessive proportion of male children is explained by the fact, that the natives of India consider that a girl reaches womanhood at an earlier age than a boy arrives at manhood; many girls are consequently returned as women. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus number 631,439, or 40·0 per cent. of the total population, while Muhammadans number 945,297, or 59·9 per cent., chiefly belonging to the lower classes. The number of Christians is 474, of whom 383 are native converts. There are 7 missionary stations in the District. The Bráhma Samáj has a few adherents, returned at 39 in number.

Of the higher castes of Hindus, Bráhmans number 37,752; and Rájputs, 903. Among the intermediate classes is the most numerous caste in the District, namely, Káyasths (writers, etc.), who number 62,611. Of the lower ranks of the Hindu community, the fishing and boating castes deserve special mention. The fisheries in the rivers and deeper swamps are very valuable, and the right to fish is a regular tenure paid for like the right to cultivate land. The number of Hindus of fishing and boating castes, such as Jaliyás, Kaibarttas, Mallahs, Pods, etc., in Jessor is 78,002, or 5 per cent. of the population; and the number of Muhammadans who follow the same occupations is probably even greater. Jessor is noted for a colony of pure Kulin Bráhmans, who live at Lakshmípásá, a village 10 miles east of Narál on the right bank of the Nabagangá, where that river joins the Bankána. These Kulins trace their origin to Ramánanda Chakrabarttí, who, five generations ago, emigrated from Sarmangal near Káliá in Bákarganj, a great Kulin settlement.

Towns, in the ordinary sense of the word, can scarcely be said to exist in the District. The only three places with a population of more than 5000 are JESSOR town (population, 8495), KOTCHANDPUR (9231), and KESABPUR (6405), which are also the only municipalities in the District. There are, according to the Census of 1881, 235 towns containing from 1000 to 5000 inhabitants (of which 213 contain fewer than 2000); 761 with between 500 and 1000 inhabitants; and 2988 with fewer than 500 inhabitants. Kotchándpur is the largest, and Kesabpur the second largest, trading place in the District, with numerous sugar-refineries, and a large trade in earthen vessels and brass-work of local manufacture. Other towns, or large villages—Naldangá, the residence of the Rájás of that name; Chaugáchhá, Magurá, Jhanidah, Chándkhálí, Khájurá, and Binodpur, all considerable trading villages; Muhammadpur, on the right bank of the Madhumatí, founded in the end of the 17th century, and containing many interesting remains of antiquity; Narál, the seat of the first family of landholders in the District; Lakshmípásá, to which reference has already been made as the residence of a settle-

ment of Kulin Bráhmans, and which is also a trading place. Descriptions of most of these places will be found in their alphabetical order in this work, and a detailed account of them is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 201–239.

Agriculture.—The staple crop in Jessor is rice, of which there are three harvests—*áman*, *áus*, and *boro*. The times of sowing and reaping vary in different parts of the District. In the north, *áman* or winter rice is sown in April and May, and reaped in November or December; in the Sundarbans it is sown in April and reaped in January. The land for this crop is ploughed four times before sowing, and, except in marsh lands, the young shoots are transplanted in July. For *áus* rice the ground is ploughed five or six times, the seed is sown on higher ground, there is no transplanting, and the land yields a second crop. *Boro* rice land is hardly ploughed at all; the seed is scattered broadcast in the marshes as they dry up; and the shoots are transplanted when a month old, and sometimes again a month later. Among the other crops of the District are barley, Indian corn, peas, mustard, jute, tobacco, potatoes, sugar-cane, indigo, *pán*, dates, etc.

There are no accurate statistics regarding the extent of land under cultivation, or the out-turn of the crops. According to the estimates before the separation of Khulná District, and the rectification of the Jessor boundaries in 1882, more than a million acres were under rice, 43,200 under oil-seeds, 10,600 under barley, 52,100 under pulses, and 236,000 acres under other crops—making a total cultivated area of 1,381,800 acres. These figures must, however, be considered as only approximately correct; and, even as regards the old area, they were subject to changes owing to the increase and variations in the cultivated area since they were framed.

The estimated area covered by date-palms for the manufacture of sugar is 17,500 acres. The trees do not commence bearing until they are six or seven years old, but afterwards they continue bearing for about thirty years. The juice is collected from November to February. A tree in good bearing will produce 5 cwt. of juice, from which 84 lbs. of molasses or *gúr*, yielding about 30 lbs. of sugar, may be made; an acre would yield about 3 tons of sugar, valued at from £50 to £60.

The area under indigo in Jessor has been estimated at 31,333 acres, and the total estimated produce for the season 1872–73 was 203 tons, valued at £114,400. In 1856, the area under indigo was greater by upwards of 30,000 acres; but a large number of factories were closed in consequence of the disturbances of 1859 to 1861, of which some account will be found in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT. At present the number of European factories throughout the District is about 55, besides 50 worked in the interest of native proprietors under European or native management. There are two methods of cultivation—one

by hired factory labour (the *níj* or *khámár* system), and the other by husbandmen who contract to cultivate the plant for the factory. Under the former system, the factory provides the means of cultivation, the total expense amounting to about 18s. an acre; under the latter system, the grower receives an advance of 12s. to 18s. an acre, and is supplied with seed, but bears all the other expenses of cultivation. There are two seasons for indigo sowing—namely, autumn (October) and spring (April); the latter crop is more precarious, but also more abundant than the former.

Among the land tenures of the District, the *mukarrárí* or permanent tenures in Naldí *parganá* deserve special notice. Rates of rent vary in Jessor according to the description and position of the land, from 9d. an acre for rice land, to £1, 16s. an acre for *pán* land. The rate for ordinary rice land throughout the District is about 6s. an acre.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur occasionally, but rarely to any serious extent. The District is, as might be expected, subject to heavy floods, which have sometimes been immediately followed by disastrous cyclones. At the end of last century, inundations happened every two or three years; but in consequence of the silting up of several of the rivers in the north, the waters which formerly overflowed that part of the District now find a wide channel in the Madhumatí, and floods are comparatively rare. Among recent inundations, those of 1838, 1847, 1856, and 1871 are the most memorable, that first mentioned (1838) having been specially severe. Formerly, the keeping up of the numerous embankments was one of the Collector's most important duties; now, owing to the changes in river-beds already referred to, embankments have become almost useless. Drought is not common in Jessor, and the famines with which the District has been visited have been perhaps more often due to floods. The only serious drought within the memory of the present generation was that of 1866. During the scarcity which followed, the maximum price of ordinary paddy was 15 lbs., and of rice 10 lbs., for a shilling.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Jessor is carried on chiefly by means of permanent markets, but there is also considerable traffic at the numerous fairs and religious gatherings held throughout the District. The chief exports are sugar—both *dhulná* (half-refined) and *paká* (white, granular)—indigo, rice, pulse; and, from the Sundarbans, timber, honey, shells, etc. The principal imports are salt, English piece-goods, and hardware. The exports greatly exceed the imports in value. The certificate-tax of 1868 estimated the trading profit of the District at £320,000. The principal manufactures of Jessor are date-sugar and indigo. Throughout the north and west of the District, the husbandmen depend more upon date cultivation than upon any other branch of agriculture; and several towns and large villages are

altogether supported by sugar manufacture. A very interesting and clear account of the cultivation of the date and the manufacture of sugar is given in Mr. Westland's Report on Jessor (to which this article is throughout much indebted), and quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 280–298. The area which would be occupied by all the date-trees in the District, if they were placed together, has been estimated at 17,500 acres, and the produce of sugar per acre at nearly 3 tons, valued at from £50 to £60. The same causes which have led to the decline of indigo cultivation in NADIYA DISTRICT, have affected Jessor in a similar way. The area under this crop in 1870 was 84 square miles; in 1872–73, it had fallen to 49 square miles. A well-known Bengálí newspaper, the *Amritá Bázár Patriká*, was formerly published in this District at the village of Amritá Bázár, but has since been removed to Calcutta.

The Means of Communication in Jessor consist of numerous rivers and waterways, with several lines of metalled road, and many tracks for bullock carts. The Bengal Central Railway now (1884) runs through the District. It describes a great curve to the northward, with Calcutta at the south-western end, the new District head-quarters of Khulná at its south-eastern extremity, and Jessor town at its northernmost point between. The total distance from Calcutta (Sialda terminus) to Khulná is 109 miles; Jessor town being 74 miles from Calcutta and 35 from Khulná. The Bengal Central line starts, strictly speaking, from Dum-Dum junction, 6 miles north of Calcutta, on the Eastern Bengal Railway.

Administration.—Reference has already been made to the numerous changes which have taken place in the jurisdiction of Jessor, and these must be borne in mind in comparing the revenue and expenditure at different periods. In 1787–88, the revenue amounted to £80,728, and the expenditure on civil administration to £6400. In 1868–69, the total revenue of the District was returned at £117,185, and the total civil expenditure at £34,993, showing an increase in the eighty years of 45 per cent. in revenue, and of 500 per cent. in expenditure. In 1876–77, the total revenue had increased to £177,473; but since the curtailment of the District in 1882, by the erection of the southern sub-divisions into the independent jurisdiction of the new KHULNA DISTRICT (*q.v.*), it has decreased to £131,643. The land-tax supplies by far the greatest proportion of the revenue. It was very much the same in amount in 1881–82 as it was in 1790, when the area of the District was much larger than at present. Since 1882 it has decreased proportionately with the lessened area of the District. The revenue given above for the year 1787–88 (£80,728) was derived entirely from the land.

Sub-division of property has gone on very rapidly under British rule. In 1790, the number of estates on the rent-roll of the then [illegible]

District was 46, held by 57 proprietors or coparceners, who paid a total land revenue of £102,178, equal to an average payment of £2221 from each estate and £1792 from each individual proprietor or coparcener. In 1871, the number of estates was 2844, paying a total land revenue of £104,519, equal to an average payment of £36, 15s. from each estate. There are now (1883) 2828 estates paying a revenue of £68,239, or an average of £24, 2s. 6d. from each estate.

Protection to person and property has increased not less rapidly. In 1781 there were only 2 magisterial and 2 civil courts in the District. In 1850 there were 4 magisterial and 19 civil courts, with 6 European officers stationed in the District. In 1883 (after the separation of Khulná) the number of magisterial courts was 11, and of civil courts (including honorary magistrates) 17. For police purposes Jessor is divided into 11 *thánás* or police circles, with 10 outpost stations. The regular District police consisted in 1882-83 of 376 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £6109. In addition to these, there was a municipal force of 45 men, costing £355, and a village watch of 2964 men, costing in money and lands an estimated sum of £10,500. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property in Jessor consisted in that year of 3385 officers and men, or 1 man to every 0·67 square mile of the area, or to every 466 of the population. The total cost of maintaining this force was £19,064, equal to a charge of £8, 7s. 6d. per square mile, or 3d. per head of the population. Jessor had at one time a very unenviable notoriety for *dákáití* or gang robbery, but this crime has now been almost stamped out. There is one jail in the District, with three subsidiary lock-ups; average daily jail population in 1882, 293·6.

Education has made rapid progress in Jessor of late years. In 1856-57, there were 6 Government and aided schools, attended by 454 pupils. In 1860-61, the number of such schools was 9, with 555 pupils; and in 1870-71, the number of these schools had increased to 390, and of pupils to 12,349. In addition to these, there were 188 private schools, with an estimated attendance of 3538 pupils. In 1882, there were, as reported by the Collector, 3 Government English schools attended by 375 pupils, 287 attending the District high school at Jessor town; 6 aided high English schools, with 789 pupils; and 11 aided middle English schools, with 661 pupils; 18 middle vernacular aided schools, with 1074 pupils; 10 circle schools, with 395 pupils; 4 girls' aided schools, with 94 pupils; 138 'stipendiary' *pátsálás*, with 5520 pupils; and 519 'result system' *pátsálás*, with 14,915 pupils. Total, 709 Government or aided schools, with 23,823 pupils. There are also a number of indigenous schools for which no returns are available; and the Census Report of 1881 showed 27,489 boys and 786 girls as under instruction, besides

55,742 adult males and 854 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. In the Education Returns, and as regards some other statistics given in the foregoing paragraphs, it must always be remembered that the present District has been diminished by the separation in 1882 of KHULNA DISTRICT (*q.v.*). In the population returns due allowance has been made for this reduction of area; but in some of the other statistics, materials are not yet available for making the necessary corrections.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Jessor does not differ from that of the other Districts of Lower Bengal. April, May, and June are here, as elsewhere, very trying, the average mean temperature for these months being 83·6° F., which is very slightly above the monthly mean for July and August. The mean temperature in November is 72°; in December, 64·9°; and in February, 70·8°. Average annual rainfall, for a period of 25 years ending 1881, 68·4 inches. Rainfall in 1882–83, 65·6 inches. Malarious diseases are, as might be expected from the nature of the country, very prevalent, intermittent fever being common throughout the year. Cholera, which is endemic during the hot season, sometimes breaks out also in October and November. The total number of deaths registered in the District in 1883 was 52,448, at the rate of 27·04 per thousand of the population. The deaths due to fever alone numbered 44,667. There are 6 charitable dispensaries in the District, which in 1882 afforded medical relief to 333 in-door and 15,128 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Jessor, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 169–331 (London: Trubner & Co., 1875). Also Mr. J. Westland's *District Report on Jessor;* the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the *Annual Provincial and Departmental Administration Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jessor.—Head-quarters Sub-division of Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 49′ to 23° 27′ N., long. 89° 1′ 45″ to 89° 28′ 45″ E. Area, 889 square miles; villages, 1493; houses, 102,138. Population (1872) 590,283; (1881) 628,939, namely, males 317,539, and females 311,400. Total increase of population in nine years, 38,656, or 6·55 per cent. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 211,006; Muhammadans, 417,527; Christians, 367; and 'others,' 39. Number of persons per square mile, 707; villages per square mile, 1·68; houses per square mile, 117; inmates per house, 6·16; proportion of males to total population, 50·5 per cent. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 12 magisterial and revenue courts; 6 police circles; a regular police force 253 strong, and a village watch of 1244 men.

Jessor (also called *Kasbá*).—Chief town of Jessor D[illegible]l, administrative head-quarters of the District; situated

river, in lat. 23° 10' 5" N., long. 89° 15' 15" E. Population (1872) 8152; (1881) 8495, namely, 4511 Hindus, 3822 Muhammadans, and 162 'others.' Municipal income (1882), £1276; incidence of taxation, 2s. 11d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town was till lately of no commercial importance, and no special manufacture is carried on. The *bázár* merely supplied the town and its vicinity. But the Central Bengal Railway, which now connects Jessor town with Calcutta on the south-west (74 miles) and Khulná on the south-east (35 miles), has already (1884) given a stimulus to Jessor as a local centre for country produce and imports: an impulse which is probably destined to increase still further in future years the commercial importance of the town. In addition to the usual public offices, jail, school-house, etc. Jessor has a small public library, church with parsonage attached, two cemeteries, and a charity hospital. A temple in the neighbourhood, founded in 1813, contains an image of Raghunáth, and is maintained by an endowment of £410 per annum. Besides the town proper, the villages of Purána, Kasbá, Bághahar, Sankarpur, and Chánchrá lie within the municipal limits. They are chiefly inhabited by people connected with the courts and public offices, or employed by the residents of the town. The residence of the Rájás of Jessor (*see* JESSOR DISTRICT) is at Chánchrá, a mile south of the town. The palace was once surrounded by a rampart and fosse, of which only the remains are now traceable. Near the palace is a large tank, dug by one of the Rájás, and called the *Chor-márá* ('thief-beating') tank. It is said that the Rájá's jail was close to the tank, hence its name.

Jethwár.—A Division or *Pranth* of Káthiáwár.—*See* BARDA.

Jetpur Bilkhá.—Native State in Soráth Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 2 towns and 142 villages, and 18,295 occupied houses, with 17 separate tribute-payers or *tálukdárs* (Kathís of the Vála tribe). Area, 734 square miles. Population (1881) 92,553, namely, 48,201 males and 44,352 females. Of the whole population, 79,231 are Hindus, 10,198 Muhammadans, and 3124 'others.' The State had in 1882, 25 schools with 1274 pupils. The police force consisted of 44 mounted, and 185 foot, and 985 police *patels* and *pasáitás*. Estimated revenue in 1876, £80,000; tribute of £5026, 4s. to the British Government, £516, 9s. to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £379, 12s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Jetpur.—Fortified town in Soráth Division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 45' 30" N., long. 70° 48' 30" E.; 40 miles south-west of Rájkot, and 63 miles north-east of Porbandar. Jetpur is a flourishing town, and [illegible] local market. It is a railway station on the Dhoraji [illegible]áwnaga[illegible] line. The station is one mile south [illegible] oads to Rájkot,

Dhoraji, Jundgarh, and Mánikwárá. Travellers' bungalow, *dharmsála*, dispensary, post-office, telegraph office, schools, and court-houses. Products, grain and cotton. Population (1881) 11,813, namely, 6114 males and 5699 females; consisting of 6318 Hindus, 4512 Muhammadans, 979 Jains, 1 Christian, and 3 'others.'

Jewár.—Town in Khurjá *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 7′ 45″ N., long. 77° 36′ 5″ E. Lies among the ravines of the high bank which separates the uplands from the Jumna valley. The low-lying plain stretches for some miles from the town to the river's edge. Jewár is built on a well-drained site, and has good sanitary arrangements. Population (1872) 7399; (1881) 6219, namely, Hindus, 4277; Muhammadans, 1868; and Jains, 74. Area of town site, 93 acres. The market-place was rebuilt in 1881-82, and contains some good shops. In the 12th century, when the crusade against the Meos took place, Jádun Rájputs, invited from Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) by the Bráhmans of Jewár, settled in the town, and expelled the Meos. The well-known Begam Samru held Jewár till her death in 1836, when it lapsed to Government. About 1500 Jágas act as a college of heralds for the neighbouring Rájput families. Manufacture of cotton rugs and carpets. Hindu fair in the month of Bhadra. Vernacular school, post-office, police station. A house-tax is levied to provide for conservancy, and for the watch and ward of the town.

Jeypore—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* JAIPUR.

Jeypore.—*Zamíndárí* and town, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency.—*See* JAIPUR.

Jeysulmere.—Native State and town in Rájputána.—*See* JAISALMIR.

Jhábua (*Jabuah*).—Native State under the Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. Area (including Ratanmal), 1336 square miles, of which only a small proportion is inhabited or cultivated. The State lies between lat. 22° 32′ and 23° 18′ N., and long. 74° 17′ and 75° 6′ E. It is bounded on the north by Kushalgarh, Rattam, and Sailána States; east by Dhar and Amjhira; south by Alí Rajpur and Jobat; and west by the Dohad and Jhálod Sub-divisions of the Panch Maháls.

Jhábua is said to derive its name from having been about two centuries and a half ago the residence of Jhábú Náik, a celebrated Bhíl freebooter, who infested these hills and built a small fort here. The present chief is a Ráhtor Rájput, and a lineal descendant of a younger branch of the ancient Ráhtor chiefs of Jodhpur. One of his ancestors, Kishan Dás, did good service to the Emperor of Delhi, Alá-ud-dín, in restoring his authority in Bengal, and punishing the Bhíl chiefs of Jhábua, who had murdered the family of a governor of Gujarát (Guzerát). The whole of the possessions of the conquered Bhíl chiefs were granted to him as a

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cipal rain crops are Indian corn, rice, *kúra*, *múg*, *urid*, *badli*, and *samli*. The 'dry' or second crops are gram and wheat. Small quantities of cotton and poppy are raised, but only in two or three places, and not sufficient for home consumption. In the Pitlawár and other Districts in the plains, sugar-cane is grown to a considerable extent. The gardens produce ginger, garlic, onions, and most of the vegetables common to the rest of Málwá. In the greater part of this State, as in most hilly and Bhíl Districts,—the soil not admitting of regular cultivation, but merely of patches in the more fertile parts,—instead of admeasurement or regular allotments of ground, the system has been adopted of taxing the cultivator according to the number of pairs of bullocks used by him in agriculture. The whole of the revenue duties and village government are in the hands of the hereditary Bhíl *pátels* or head-men. The State pays £147 towards the cost of the Malwá Bhíl corps.

There are dispensaries and schools in three towns, viz. Jhábua, Ránápur, and Kandla; also a school at Rambhápur. Education, however, is neglected, and the schools are very inefficient. The Rájá of Jhábua maintains a military force of 50 horse and 200 foot. There are three fair-weather roads: (1) from Indore *via* Dhar and Alí Rajpur to Gujarát, passing through Pára Rajla and Kanás, (2) from Rattam *via* Dohad to Gujarát, passing through Pitláwar and Thaundla; (3) a branch road from Pitláwar *via* Thaundla, Jhábua, and Ránápur to Gujarát. Along all of these roads water is scarce during the hot season.

Jhábua.—Chief town of the Jhábua State, under the Bhopáwar Agency of Central India; situated in lat. 22° 45′ N., and long. 74° 38′ E., on the route from Mau (Mhow) to Jhálod, 82 miles west of the former, and 36 south-west of the latter. The town is enclosed by a mud wall, with circular bastions of masonry, and stands on the margin of a small lake in a valley lying at the eastern base of a ridge of hills. On the north bank is the Rájá's residence rising above the town, and some temples; and on the opposite side is a fine grove of trees, whilst behind the palace and town rises a hill covered with low jungle. Jhábua consists of tortuous, uneven, and steep streets. By the lake is a memorial of the death of the present (1882) chief's father, killed 40 years ago by lightning while seated on his elephant. The town is unhealthy. Dispensary, post-office, and school.

Jhajhar.—Town in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 16′ N., long. 77° 42′ 15″ E. Distant from Bulandshahr town 15 miles south-west. Population (1881) 4151. Founded by Sayyid Muhammad Khán, a Baluch who accompanied Humáyún in his raid, and made the town a refuge for runaways and outcasts. His descendants in the ninth generation still own the soil. Before the Mutiny, Jhajhar supplied the light cavalry with many Baluch recruits. It is now a mean, poverty stricken town, with a post-office, police ·on, vil-

Abdul Rahmán Khán, the reigning Nawáb, threw off his allegiance, together with his cousin of Bahádurgarh. Both were captured and tried, and the Nawáb of Jhajjar was condemned to death, his estates being confiscated by the British Government. A District of Jhajjar was organized out of the new territory, but in 1861 the head-quarters were removed to Rohtak, with which District Jhajjar was incorporated. Small and languishing trade in grain and country produce, the town lying remote from modern trade routes. Considerable manufacture of pottery. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office, *dák* bungalow, school-house, dispensary. Ruined tanks and tombs surround the town. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £630, or 1s. 1d. per head of population.

Jhaknauda.—Town in Jhábua State, Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. Large town, situated 15 miles from Sardárpur, and 24 miles north-east of Jhábua town. The residence of a *Thákur*, one of the principal *Umraos;* his income is £1000, and he pays an annual tribute of £311 to the Indore State.

Jhálakáti (or *Mahárájganj*).—Village and municipality in Bákarganj District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 38′ 30″ N., long. 90° 15′ E.; situated at the junction of the Jhálakáti and Nálchiti rivers. Population (1881) 1463. One of the largest timber markets in Eastern Bengal, especially for the sale of *sundri* wood. Extensive export trade in rice; imports of salt. Municipal revenue (1881–82), £140; rate of taxation, 11d. per head of population (3000) within municipal limits. Fair held here annually in November at the *Diwáli* festival, which is attended by about 8000 persons.

Jháláwár.—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Haraoti and Tonk Agency, Rájputána, Central India. The State consists of three detached tracts. The largest one is bounded on the north by the State of Kotah; on the east by Sindhia's territory and a detached District of the Tonk State; on the south by the petty State of Rájgarh, outlying portions of the States of Sindhia and Holkar, a detached District of the Dewás State, and the State of Jaura (Jáora); and on the west by detached Districts belonging to Sindhia and Holkar. This portion of the State lies between lat. 23° 48′ and 24° 48′ N., and between long. 75° 55′ and 77° E., and contains the capital, JHALRA PATAN. The second detached area is bounded on the north, east, and south by the Gwalior State, and on the west by Kotah. It lies between lat. 25° 5′ and 25° 25′ N., and between long. 76° 55′ and 77° 25′ E. The chief town in this tract is Sháhábád. The third detached tract, known as Kirpápur, situated to the north-west of the largest tract, is only a few square miles in extent, and is bounded on the north by Sindhia's territory, and on the east, south, and west by Mewár (Udaipur). The area of the whole State is 2694 square miles; number of villages, 1455; towns, 2. Population (1881) 340,488.

Physical Aspects.—The main portion of Jháláwár is situated on a raised plateau, gradually rising from 1000 feet above sea-level in the north to 1500 feet in the south. The northern, eastern, and part of the southern portions are very hilly, and intersected by many streams. The hills are for the most part covered with timber and grass, and sometimes enclose lakes, which have been formed by damming up the outlets of natural basins. The rest of this tract is a rich undulating plain, dotted with evergreen trees. The Sháhábád tract is, on the west, an elevated table-land, well wooded; and in the eastern part, some 500 feet lower, very hilly and covered with thick jungle. Speaking generally, the soil is rich, of dark clayey mould, which produces valuable crops, such as opium, etc. Locally the soils are known and divided into 3 classes—(1) *káli*, the rich black loam; (2) *mál*, a loam of a lighter colour, but almost equally fertile; (3) *bárlı*, the shaly soil, by far the poorest of the three. It is estimated that about one-quarter of the cultivable area consists of *káli*, one-half of *mál*, and one-quarter of *bárli* soil. At places the presence of rock and *kankar* (calcareous limestone) close to the surface interferes with the productiveness of the *káli* and *mál* soils.

Of the many streams running through the territory, the following are the most important:—The Parwan enters the State at the south-east extremity, and winds for 50 miles up to the point where it enters Kotah; half-way, it is joined by the Newáj, another good-sized stream. For 16 miles of its length, the Parwan forms the boundary line between Jháláwár and Kotah State. There are two ferries on the Parwan; one at Manohar Thána, the other at Bhachurni. A ferry at Bhurilia crosses the Newáj. The Kálí Sind flows for a distance of about 30 miles through and along the border of the State. Its bed is rocky, the banks precipitous, and in parts lined with trees. There is a ferry at Bhonrása and another at Khairási. The Aú river, flowing from the south-western corner, traverses the State for a length of 60 miles, dividing Jháláwár from Holkar's territory and the Tonk Districts in the south, and from Kotah in the north. It joins the Kálí Sind at the point where that stream enters Kotah. The bed of this river is less rocky than the Kálí Sind, its banks are steep, and in parts where the foliage reaches the water's edge, the views are picturesque. Ferries cross the Aú at Suket and Bhilwári. The Chhota Kálí Sind, with a ferry at Gangrár, flows only for a short distance through the south-western portion of the State.

The following extract from a brief memorandum by the Superintendent of the Survey, shows the geological formation of the country:—'Two of the main rock series of India are well exposed. Jhalra Pátan, the capital, stands on Vindhyan strata, at the northern edge of the great spread of basaltic rocks known as the Deccan trap formation, this

northern area of it being also often mentioned as the Málwá trap. These Vindhyans belong to the upper division in the Geological Survey classification of this great Indian rock system. The beds about Jhalra Pátan are considered to belong to the Rewá or middle group of them, and consist of sandstones and shales, with a band of limestone. Over the greater part of this Vindhyan area the strata are quite undisturbed, and their habit is to weather into scarped plateaux or ridges, having one face steep and the other sloping. These are capped by the sandstone, the low ground being eroded out of the shales. There are many varieties of basaltic rocks, hard with columnar and ball structure or amorphous, also vesicular and amygdaloidal in every degree, and soft crumbling ash-like beds, both earthy and vesicular. The age of the Vindhyan formation is quite unknown, beyond the fact that it must be at least as old as the palæozoic. The trap is certainly either upper cretaceous or lower tertiary.' Iron, and red and yellow clays used for dyeing cloth, are found in the Sháhábád District.

History.—The ruling family of Jháláwár belongs to the Jhálá clan of Rájputs. Their ancestors were petty chiefs of Halwad in the District of Jháláwár, in Káthiáwár. About 1709 A.D., one Bhao Singh, a younger son of the head of the clan, set out from home with his son and a small troop of followers, to try his fortune at Delhi. At Kotah, Bhao Singh left his son Mádhu Singh with the Mahárájá of Kotah, and went on himself to Delhi, where all trace of him ends. Mádhu Singh rose into great favour with the Kotah chief, who married his eldest son to Mádhu Singh's sister, and gave him a grant of the estate of Nandla, with the post of Faujdár, which included not only the command of the troops, but that of the castle, the residence of the sovereign. This procured him the respectful title of Mámá, or maternal uncle, from the younger members of the prince's family, a title which habit has perpetuated with his successors. Mádhu Singh was succeeded in the office of Faujdár by his son Madan Singh, and it then became hereditary in the family. Himmat Singh followed Madan Singh, and was in his turn succeeded by his famous nephew Zalím Singh, who was at the time only eighteen years of age. Three years later, Zalím Singh was the means of securing victory for the troops of Kotah over the army of Jaipur, but he afterwards fell into disfavour with the Rájá in consequence of some rivalry in love. Being dismissed from his office, he migrated to Udaipur (Oodeypore), where he did good service. But when the Kotah Rájá was on his death-bed, he sent for Zalím Singh, and committed his son Umed Singh and the country to his charge. From this time, Zalím Singh was the real ruler of Kotah. He raised it to a state of high prosperity; and under his administration, which lasted over forty-five years, the Kotah territory was respected by all parties—Muhammadan, Maráthá, and Rájput (see KOTAH). In 1838, it was

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Revenue.—The total revenue of the State in 1882–83 was £152,523, of which sum £118,397 was derived from the land. Of this sum only £132,480 reached the treasury, the balance, £20,043, being alienated in *jágírs* or feudal holdings, or in religious grants. The theory that the State is lord of the soil is carried out in Jháláwár. The cultivators,

except in the Chaumela District (comprising the *parganás* of Pachpahár, Awar, Dág, and Gangrár), are, as a rule, occupancy tenants, holding directly from the State. In the Chaumela District, the revenue is realized from village communities, the members of which are called *wattandárs*. But the bankers, who live in Jhalra Pátan, are the chief media for the transfer of revenue from the cultivators to the Rána. The *jágirdárs* furnish horses and men for the service of the State, and present themselves at head-quarters on the occurrence of festivals.

The police are distributed over four Districts and are under the charge of four superintendents. The numbers are 167 mounted and 1417 foot; and are included in the cavalry and infantry enumerated above. A central jail exists, in which the prisoners are employed in road-making and the manufacture of paper, rugs, and clothes. An extradition treaty was concluded with the State in 1868. Education is at present very backward, but is slowly progressing. There were in 1884 in the State 22 schools. In the Districts, the village priest teaches the young people (chiefly the sons of Bráhmans and Baniyás) the method of keeping accounts and the rudiments of reading and writing Hindí. In the town of Jhalra Pátan, and in the Chhaoni or cantonment, there are two schools in which Hindí, Urdú, and English are taught; and one girls' school. The number of pupils receiving instruction in all the State schools (1883-84) was 1139, of whom 35 were girls. A judicial system has been introduced. The lower courts are *tahsíl* courts with minor powers: above the *tahsíl* courts are the appellate courts, generally formed of a *panchdyat*. Final appeal lies to the Rána. Five dispensaries are maintained by the State, two at head-quarters, and three in the Districts; 162 in-door and 15,855 out-door patients were treated in 1883-84.

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are found to the number of about thirty-six thousand in the Jháláwár State. The complexion of this race is fair, neither very dark nor very light (Sandhia = twilight). They claim descent from a prince born with the face of a tiger, and consider themselves a distinct Rájput people. They are idle, predatory, and immoral. Their women have a reputation for horsemanship.

Means of Communication.—There are in the State 51½ miles of metalled road and 89½ miles of fair-weather road; of the former, a length of 27½ miles is on the road running through the State from Kotah on the northern border, to Raipur in Holkar's territory on the southern; the remaining length of 24 miles being in and around the cantonments and town of Jhalra Pátan. All other roads are simply cart tracks, which in the rains become useless for wheeled traffic. The principal of these lead towards the high-road between Agra and Bombay, towards Agra and Indore, to the south-west towards Ujjain, to the west in the direction of Nimach (Neemuch). Along the south-east and south routes traffic is carried on with Bombay through Indore, opium being exported, and English cloths imported; grain from Bhopál is also imported by these routes. By the north-west route grain from Haráoti, and a small quantity of cloth from Agra, is imported. The chief towns in the State are Jhalra Pátan, Sháhábád, Kailwára, Chhipa Burod, Bukari Suket, Mandhár Thána, Pachpahár, Dág, and Gangrár.

Climate.—The climate of Jháláwár resembles that of Central India, and is generally healthy. The hot weather is less severe than in Northern Rájputána, the thermometer during the day in the shade ranging from 85° to 88° F. The temperature during the rains is cool and pleasant, and in the cold weather frosts occasionally occur. No trustworthy register of the rainfall has been kept; but judging from the record kept at Agar (a station in Sindhia's territory, about 60 miles south of Jhalra Pátan), the annual rainfall is probably between 30 and 40 inches. In 1883, the rainfall was registered at four stations, viz. the cantonments 30·5, Jhalra Pátan 33·6, Sháhábád 33·5, and Aklera 38·7 inches.

Jháláwár.—Division or *Pranth* of Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Takes its name from the Jhála Rájputs, who own the principal estates. It includes the States of Dhrángadra, the chief of which is the recognised head of the Jhálá clan, Wankáner, Limbdi, Wadhwán, and minor States. Area, about 4400 square miles. Population (1872) 427,329; (1881) 439,629, namely, 228,701 males and 210,928 females, dwelling in 9 towns and 702 villages, and occupying 94,548 houses. Average density of population, 102·4 per square mile. According to religion, Hindus numbered 371,510; Muhammadans, 37,156; and 'others,' 30,963.

Jhalera.—Guaranteed Girásia, Thákurate, or chiefship, under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. The chief receives from Sindhia a pecuniary allowance, in lieu of rights over land, of nearly £120. This is paid through the Political Agent, to whom also the Thákur is subordinate in his administration.

Jhálod.—Petty division of the Sub-division of Dahod, Panch Maháls District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 25′ 50″ to 23° 35′ N., and long. 74° 6′ to 74° 23′ 25″ E. Jhálod is bounded on the north by Chelkári State, on the east by Kushalgad State, both in Central India, on the south by the southern portion of Dohad Sub-division, and on the west by Baria (Bariya) and Sunth of Rewá Kántha. The Anas river runs along its eastern face. Water is in most places close to the surface, and large areas are watered by lever-lifts from unbuilt wells. The important trade route from Gujarát (Guzerát) to Málwá passes through the tract. Area, 267 square miles. Population (1872) 36,785. The Census of 1881 does not show the population of Jhálod separately, but includes it with that of the Sub-division of which it forms a part.

Jhálod.—Town in Jhálod, petty division of the Sub-division of Dahod, Panch Mahâls District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 7′ N., long. 74° 10′ E. Population (1881) 5579, of whom 2659 were Hindus, 1061 Muhammadans, 69 Jains, and 'others,' 1790. Area of town site, 94 acres. The inhabitants are mostly Bhíls and Kolís. There is an export trade in grain, pottery, cotton cloth, and lac bracelets in imitation of the costly ivory Ratlám bracelets. There is a large pond near the town.

Jhalotar-Ajgáin.—*Parganá* of Mohán *tahsíl*, Unao District, Oudh; situated between Mohán Aurás on the north, and Harha on the south. Originally constituted a *parganá* in the reign of Akbar. Area, 98 square miles, of which 55 are cultivated; Government land revenue demand, £8901; average incidence, 2s. 10½d. per acre. The prevailing tenure is imperfect *pattidári*, 46,650 out of the total of 62,657 acres being thus held; of the balance, 12,096 acres are *zamíndári*, and 3910 *tálukdári*. Population (1881) 58,185, namely, 30,536 males and 27,649 females. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway intersects the *parganá*, with a station at Kusumbhi. Five market villages.

Jhalra Pátan (or *Pátan*).—Chief town of the Native State of Jháláwár, Rájputána. Jhalra Pátan lies in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 76° 12′ E.; situated at the foot of a low range of hills running from south-east to north-west. The drainage from these hills to the north-west of the town is collected into a good-sized lake by a large and very solid masonry dam, about two-thirds of a mile long, on which stand sundry temples and buildings. The town lies behind this dam, the general level of

the ground being the same height as the water of the lake in the cold weather. Between the city walls and the foot of the hills stretch a number of gardens, watered by a small canal brought from the lake. Except on the lake side, the city is protected by a masonry wall with circular bastions and a ditch capable of being supplied by the lake. This ditch, however, ceases in the centre of the eastern face. From the west, running south of the city at a distance of 400 or 500 yards, flows the Chandrabágha river, which then bends to the north-east, and, passing through the hills, joins the Kálí Sind after a course of about four miles through open country. On a hill 150 feet above the city is situated a small square fort of no importance.

The old town was situated a little to the south of the present site, on the bank of the Chandrabágha. There is considerable diversity of opinion as to the derivation of the name. According to Tod, Jhalra Pátan means the 'City of Bells,' as the old town, being a place of some sanctity, contained 108 temples with bells. It was also known from its position by the name of Chandioti-Nagri, which was destroyed, and its temple despoiled in the time of Aurangzeb. All that was left of the ancient place in 1796, was the temple of Sát Seheli, or 'Seven Damsels,' which still stands in the new town. Others connect the name of the town with the Jhálá clan. Thornton considers the most plausible etymology to be *jhalra*, 'a spring of water,' and *pátan*, a 'town.'

The present city was founded in 1796 by Zalím Singh, who also established the Chhaoni, a permanent cantonment about 4 miles north from the city, with which it is connected by a metalled road. Zalím Singh, upon founding Jhalra Pátan, placed a large stone tablet in the centre of the town, on which was engraved a promise that new settlers would be excused the payment of custom dues, and would be, for whatever crime convicted, fined no more than Rs. 1-4 (2s. 6d.). This edict was annulled in 1850. The MahárájáRáná's palace and all the courts and public offices are situated in the Chhaoni or cantonment. The palace is enclosed by a high masonry wall forming a square, with large circular bastions at each corner, and two semicircular ones in the centre of each face or side of the square; the length of each face being 735 feet. The principal entrance is in the centre of the eastern side, and the approach to it is along the main street of the *bázár* running due east and west. About a mile to the south-west is a sheet of water, below which, and watered by it, are several gardens, in the centre of one of which is a bungalow, with a canal round it filled with water from the lake. The Chhaoni is situated on a rising stretch of rocky ground, about 2½ miles from the strong fort of Gagraun, in Kotah territory. Its present great want is a proper water-supply for drinking and bathing purposes. The population is

larger than that of the town proper. The chief bankers live at Jhalra Pátan. The mint and other State establishments are there also. It is the head-quarters of the Jhalra Pátan *parganá*, while the cantonment is the head-quarters of the Jháláwár court. Population (1881) of Pátan, 11,469, namely, 6042 males and 5427 females. Hindus were returned as numbering 9378 and Muhammadans 2091. Of Chhaoni the population was 20,303, namely, 10,866 males and 9437 females. Hindus numbered 14,212; Muhammadans, 6080; and 'others,' 11.

Jhalu.—Town in Bijnaur *tahsíl*, Bijnor (Bijnaur) District, North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 29° 20′ 10″ N., and long. 78° 15′ 30″ E., on the Dhámpur road, 6 miles east of Bijnaur town. Population (1872) 5979; (1881) 5547, namely, Hindus, 3102; and Muhammadans, 2445. Area of town site, 94 acres. An important market town, with a large trade in agricultural produce. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied.

Jhámka.—Petty State in South Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Jhámka consists of 1 village, Jhámka, with 2 separate tribute-payers. It is 10 miles south of Kunkávár station on the Dhoráji branch line of the Bhaunagar-Gondál Railway, and 18 miles north-west of Lákhápádar *tháná*. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £400; tribute of £18, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. Population (1881) 785.

Jhammar.—Petty State in Jháláwár Division of Káthiáwár, Guzerát, Bombay Presidency. Jhammar consists of 1 village, Jhammar, with 2 separate tribute-payers. It is 9 miles north east of Wadhán city, and 3 miles south-west of Lakhtar station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The *tálukdárs* are Jhálá Rájputs and Bháyáds of Wadhán. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £401; tribute of £46, 8s. is paid to the British Government. Population (1872) 584; (1881) 717.

Jhámpodar.—Petty State in Jháláwár Division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Jhámpodar consists of 1 village, Jhámpodar, with 3 separate tribute-payers. It is 10 miles south of Lakhtar, and 10 miles east of Wadhán station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. The *tálukdárs* are Jhálá Rájputs, Bháyáds of Wadhán. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £412; tribute of £13, 16s. is paid to the British Government. Population (1872) 449; (1881) 561.

Jhang.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 35′ and 32° 4′ N. lat., and between 71° 39′ and 73° 38′ E. long. Jhang forms the northern District of the Multán (Mooltan) Division. It stands fourth in order of area, and twenty-sixth in order of population, among the thirty-two Districts of the Province, comprising 5·33 per cent. of the total are^ 2·10 . .

cent. of the total population, and 1·52 per cent. of the urban population of British territory. The District is bounded on the north by Sháhpur and Gujránwála; on the west by Dera Ismáil Khán; and on the south-east by Montgomery, Multán, and Muzaffargarh. Area, 5702 square miles; population (1881), 395,296 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at MAGHIANA, a suburb of the town of JHANG.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Jhang comprises an irregular triangle, artificially constituted for administrative purposes from portions of three separate tracts. Its eastern half embraces a large part of the high dorsal ridge in the Rechna Doáb; thence it stretches across the Chenáb into the wedge of land between that stream and the Jehlam (Jhelum), whose waters unite a few miles below the town of Jhang; while westward again the boundary runs beyond the joint river, far into the heart of the Sind Ságar (Saugor) Doáb. The Rávi also bounds the District for a few miles along its southern edge. So artificial a tract can hardly be said to possess any common natural features of its own. Starting from the eastern border, we come first upon the *bár* or wild upland plain of the Rechna Doáb, broken here and there by sandy depressions, and inhabited only by pastoral nomads, who dwell in moveable hamlets of thatched huts. In the south, however, along the bank of the Rávi, and to the west, along the Chenáb, before and after its junction with the Jehlam, strips of comparatively fertile lowland support a dense population. Some seven miles east of the Chenáb, the country once more rises, and abruptly changes from a wooded cultivable plain to the lifeless wilderness characteristic of the higher lands between the river valleys of the western Punjab. Strips of cultivation along the convergent streams enclose this sterile wedge, which runs like an intrusive spur of Sháhpur District down the centre of the Jech Doáb. Beyond the Jehlam, another singularly fertile belt fringes the river, extending a few miles inland, till it reaches the bank of the Sind Ságar *thal*, rising like a wall above the rich alluvial lowland. Only 39 per cent. of the whole area is included within regularly defined villages; the remainder consists of wild and elevated plateaux, almost destitute of vegetation, or covered with clumps of coarse grass. An ancient watercourse, now dry, crosses the north-eastern angle, and bears the name of the Nannánwa Canal.

There are no mines in the District, but there are several stone quarries in the hills near Chiniot, where mill-stones, pestles and mortars, shoemakers' blocks, kneading stones, oil-pans for lamps, etc., are made. The Kirána Hills are said to contain iron-ore, but it has never been worked. Fish are caught at Lalera, in the extreme south, to supply the market of Multán. Beasts of prey include the wolf, hyæna, wild cat, and lynx. Ravine-deer, wild hog, and hares occur in the less frequented parts of the lowlands; geese are plentiful during the season,

but wild duck are scarce. A few wild asses are said to roam over the outskirts of the desert uplands. The *sajji* plant, which yields soda, grows abundantly in the high ground between the Chenáb and the Jehlam, and in the southern part of the Rechná Doáb.

History.—The District of Jhang possesses unusual historical interest, from the presence within its borders of the ruins which crown the small rocky eminence of Sánglawála Tiba. This site has been identified by General Cunningham with the Sákala of the Bráhmans, the Ságal of Buddhism, and the Sangala of Alexander's historians. The hill occupies a position on the Gujránwála border, surrounded on two sides by a large swamp, formerly a lake of considerable depth. In the *Mahábhárata*, Sákala appears as the capital of the Mádras, whose memory still survives in the name of Mádra-des, which the surrounding country retains at the present day. Paths through the primeval forest then led up to the lake and hill where the Aryan colonists had placed their stronghold. In Buddhist legend, Ságal appears as the metropolis of King Kusa, against whom seven kings made war, to carry off his wife, Prabhávati; but the king, mounting an elephant, met them without the city, and shouted with so loud a voice that his cry resounded over all the earth, and the seven kings fled away in terror. The Greek historians inform us how Alexander turned aside from his projected march towards the Ganges, to attack the people of Sangala, who held out against him in the rear. He found the city strong both by art and nature, defended by brick walls and covered on two approaches by the lake. The Macedonian forces attacked and took an outpost on the low ridge of Mundapapura, after which they laid siege to the city, undermined the walls, and carried the position by assault. Hwen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who visited Sákala in 630 A.D., has given the topographical details which enable General Cunningham to effect the present identification with an unusual degree of certainty. The walls then lay in ruins, and a small inhabited town occupied the centre of the ancient city, whose relics surrounded it on every side. It still contained a Buddhist monastery of 100 monks, and two topes (*stupas*), one of them erected by the famous Emperor Asoka. Sherkot, in the lowlands of the Chenáb, has also been identified, though less certainly, with a town of the Malli, attacked and taken by Alexander, and described at a later period by Hwen Thsang as the capital of a considerable District.

In modern times, the history of Jhang centres in the family of Siáls, who ruled over a large tract between Sháhpur and Multán, with little dependence on the imperial court at Delhi, until they finally fell before the power of Ranjít Singh. The Siáls of Jhang are Muhammadans of Rájput descent, whose ancestor, Rái Shankar of Dáránagar, emigrated

early in the 13th century from the Gangetic Doáb to Jaunpur. His son, Siál, in 1243, left his adopted city for the Punjab, then overrun by the Mughal hordes. Such emigrations appear to have occurred frequently at the time, owing to the unsettled state of the lower Provinces. During his wanderings in search of a home, Siál fell in with the famous Musalmán saint Bába Farid-ud-dín Shakarganj of Pákpattan, whose eloquence converted him to the faith of Islám. He afterwards sojourned for a while at Siálkot, where he built a fort; but finally settled down and married at Sáhiwál, in Sháhpur District. It must be confessed, however, that his life and those of his descendants bear somewhat the character of eponymic myths. Mának, sixth in descent from Siál, founded the town of Mankera in 1380; and his great-grandson, Mal Khán, built Jháng Siál on the Chenáb in 1462. Four years later, Mal Khán presented himself at Lahore, in obedience to a summons, and obtained the territory of Jhang as a hereditary possession, subject to a payment of tribute into the imperial treasury. His family continued to rule at Jhang, with the usual dynastic quarrels and massacres of Indian annals, till the beginning of the present century.

Meanwhile, the Sikh power had arisen in the north, and Karam Singh Dúlú, a chief of the Bhangi confederacy, had conquered Chiniot in this District. In 1803, Ranjít Singh marched against that fort and captured it, after which he turned towards Jhang, but was bought off by Ahmad Khán, the last of the Siál chieftains, on promise of a yearly tribute, amounting to £7000 and a mare. Three years later, however, the Mahárájá again invaded Jhang with a large army, and captured the fort, after a desperate resistance. Ahmad Khán then fled to Multán, and the Mahárájá farmed the territories of Jhang to Sardár Fateh Singh. Shortly afterwards, Ahmad Khán returned with a force given him by Muzaffar Khán, Nawáb of Multán, and recovered a large part of his previous dominions, which Ranjít Singh suffered him to retain on payment of the former tribute, as he found himself too busy elsewhere to attack Jhang. After his successful attempt on Multán in 1810, the Mahárájá took Ahmad Khán a prisoner to Lahore, as he suspected him of favouring his enemy, Muzaffar Khán. He afterwards bestowed on him a *jágír*, which descended to his son, Ináyat Khán. On the death of the latter, his brother, Ismáil Khán, endeavoured to obtain succession to the *jágír*, but failed through the opposition of Guláb Singh. In 1847, after the establishment of the British Agency at Lahore, the District came under the charge of our Government; and in 1848, Ismáil Khán rendered important services against the rebel chiefs, for which he received a small pension. During the Mutiny of 1857, the Siál leader again proved his loyalty by raising a force of cavalry and serving in person on the British side.

His pension was afterwards increased, and he obtained the title of Khán Bahádur, with a small *jágír* for life.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the total population of the District, as then constituted, at 251,769 persons; but by adding the population of various villages in Sháhpur and Muzaffargarh, since transferred to Jhang, the total is raised to 299,054. In 1868, the next enumeration disclosed a total population, over an area corresponding to the present District, of 347,043, or an increase of 47,989 over 1855. At the last Census in 1881, it was ascertained that the population had increased to 395,296, or by 96,242 since 1855, or by 48,253 since 1868. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area, 5702 square miles, with 5 towns and 756 villages; number of houses, 87,808, of which 67,024 were occupied and 20,784 unoccupied. Number of families, 85,064. Total population, 395,296, namely, males 214,382, and females 180,914. Average density of population, 69 per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 0·13; persons per town or village, 520; houses per square mile, 15; persons per occupied house, 5·9. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years of age—males 90,862, and females 78,463; above 15 years—males 123,520, and females 102,451. As regards religious distinctions, the District forms a strong centre for the faith of Islám. The Muhammadans at the date of the Census numbered 326,910, or 82·70 per cent.; while the Hindus amounted to only 64,892, or 16·42 per cent. The Sikhs were returned at 3477; Christians, 11; Jains, 4; and Pársís, 2. In the ethnical classification, Rájputs occupy the first place numerically, with 89,641 persons, chiefly Siáls and Bhattís. Játs come next with 48,242. Aroras, a Hindu trading caste, numbered 45,041; Khatrís, 15,196; Julahás, 24,176; Biluchís, 15,093; Sayyids, 5944; and Bráhmans, 5319.

Only 3 towns contained a population exceeding 5000 persons—namely, MAGHIANA, 12,574, and JHANG, 9055, the two places forming practically one town; and CHINIOT, 10,731. The only other places worthy of the name of towns are SHORKOT, 2283; and AHMADPUR, 2388. Of the 761 towns and villages (or rather in many cases collections of houses grouped together for Census purposes), 550 were returned as containing less than five hundred inhabitants; 141 from five hundred to a thousand; 52 from one to two thousand; 12 from two to three thousand; and 6 towns upwards of three thousand inhabitants. It is only in the Chiniot *tahsíl*, and in the better cultivated tracts in other portions of the District, that all the inhabitants of the lands included in a village site occupy one compact hamlet or village, in the English sense of the word. They prefer dwelling in isolated homesteads, at their separate wells. In the south of the District there are many village areas which have no village site what-

ever, each proprietor living at his well. The well of the *lambardár* or head-man, and perhaps one other of the village proprietors, may have a small hamlet growing up round it, consisting of the huts of the proprietor and his tenants, and of a shopkeeper and a few village menials (*kámins*); but there are hardly any strong, solidly-built villages, such as are seen in Districts farther east. As regards occupation, the Census returned the male population above 15 years of age under the following heads:—(1) professional class, 3646; (2) domestic and menial class, 2935; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 4711; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 59,343; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, including artisans, 34,251; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, 12,540; (7) occupation not specified, 6094. Punjábí and Játkí (Multání) are the languages spoken in the District.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in 1873 amounted to 241,325 acres, and in 1881–82 to 322,788 acres, or, roughly speaking, one-tenth of the entire area. The distinguishing feature of the District consists in the fact that no crops can anywhere be grown without irrigation. The best land is that which lies beyond the immediate action of the rivers, and between the alluvial lands and the high bank of the *bár*. In this tract all the principal staples of the District can be raised by means of well-irrigation. The land exposed to the inundations produces more uncertain crops, as a rich deposit sometimes covers the previously sterile plain, while at other times villages, wells, and cultivated fields are carried away by the destructive flood. Rain crops are practically unknown. Wheat, barley, gram, turnips, and peas form the staples of the spring harvest; while *joár*, cotton, *mash*, *chiná*, *tíl*, and maize make up the chief items of the autumn crops. In 1881–82, wheat covered 172,760 acres; *joár*, 38,561 acres; gram, 13,208 acres; barley, 6240 acres; cotton, 29,781 acres; and vegetables, 17,322. Agricultural knowledge remains in a backward state, rotation of crops being absolutely unknown, and perhaps unneeded. Manure is largely used, and fallows are made use of to reinvigorate exhausted land.

Cattle-grazing forms the means of livelihood of a large section of population, and nearly one-half of the total assessed area of the District, or 1,520,383 acres, is returned as grazing land. Cattle theft forms a common crime in the District. Horse and camel breeding is a favourite pursuit. The horses of Jhang bear a high reputation, and the mares are esteemed among the best in the Punjab.

The village system and the theory of joint responsibility for the land revenue may be regarded as entirely an innovation of British rule. By far the greater number of villages are held on the tenure known as *bháyáchára cháhwár*, though they cannot be

entirely assimilated to any of the common Punjab types. The majority of tenants hold their land at will. Of the total area held by tenants, only one per cent. is cultivated by tenants paying cash rents, the general rate in kind being half produce. Money rents where they occur vary from 6s. to £4, 10s. per acre. Good irrigated wheat lands bring in £1, 8s., cotton lands from 12s. to £1, 7s. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows on the 1st January 1883:—Wheat, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s 7d. per cwt.; flour, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt., barley, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s 10d. per cwt.; gram, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d per cwt.; maize, 45 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, 34 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of the District is inconsiderable, and most of the trade is local. Grain is imported from the banks of the Rávi and from Wazirábád in Gujránwála. Country cloth is manufactured at Jhang and Maghiáná, and bought up by the Povindah merchants of Afghánistán. The District contains as many as 8144 looms, and the annual value of the cloth woven amounts to about £100,000. The estimated value of the imports is returned at £285,227, and that of the exports £94,889. Manufactures of leather and of gold and silver lace also exist. The chief roads are those from Multán to Wazirábád, passing Sherkot, Jhang, Maghiáná, and Chiniot in this District; and from Chichawatni in Montgomery District on the Lahore and Multán line of railway to Cháh Bhareri leading to Dera Ismáil Khán. A mail cart runs between Chichawatni, Dera Ismáil Khán, and Bannu. Total length of roads, 954 miles. The Lahore-Multán branch of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway passes near the south of the District, but nowhere intersects it. A bridge of boats has been constructed across the united waters of the Jehlam and Chenáb, just below their junction. Both rivers are navigable all the year round by the largest native craft. They are crossed at various points by 28 ferries. Length of navigable rivers, 166 miles within the District.

Administration.—The total imperial revenue raised in the District in 1873 amounted to £49,302, of which sum the land-tax contributed £42,115, or more than six-sevenths. In 1881–82, the imperial revenue had increased to £54,136, of which £44,449 was derived from the land. Stamps form the only other item of revenue of any importance. In addition to the imperial revenue, a Provincial and a local revenue are also raised, the estimated income from both being £12,000. Leases for grazing and for collecting *sajji* form considerable items of public income. The administrative staff usually comprises a Deputy Commissioner and two extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual judicial, fiscal, and constabulary officers. In

1882, the regular police force consisted of a total of 396 officers and men, or, with the municipal and ferry police, 475; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 12 square miles of area, and every 832 of the population. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences committed in the District during the year 1882 amounted to 2543, of whom 1493 were convicted. The District jail at Maghiáná contained in 1881–82 a total population of 970 prisoners, with a daily average of 307 inmates. Education was carried on during 1882 by 53 Government-inspected schools, attended by 2156 pupils. Inquiries by the Education Department ascertained the existence also of a total of 314 indigenous schools at which 2863 children were obtaining some form of education. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 3 *tahsíls* and 25 police circles. The four municipal towns of Jhang-Maghiáná, Chiniot, Shorkot, and Ahmadpur had a total revenue in 1881–82 of £3551, or an average of 1s. 10d. per head of the population (37,213) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District bears a good reputation for healthiness. Small-pox and fever are the most prevalent diseases. The total number of deaths recorded from all causes in 1881 amounted to 6470, or 18 per thousand of the population. Of these, 2033, or 10·91 per thousand, were assigned to fever alone. Government charitable dispensaries have been established at Maghiáná, Jhang, Shorkot, Chiniot, Ahmadpur, and Kot Isá Sháh. In 1881 they afforded relief to 67,835 persons, of whom 1359 were in-patients. The average annual rainfall for the 20 years ending 1881 is returned by the Meteorological Department at 11·18 inches. The rainfall in the latter year was 8·40 inches, or 2·78 inches below the average. [For further information concerning Jhang, see the *Gazetteer* of the District, published by authority of the Punjab Government (1883–84). Also the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881, and the various annual *Administrative and Departmental Provincial Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jhang.—Central *tahsíl* of Jhang District, Punjab, comprising an irregular tract on either side of the river Chenáb. Lat. 30° 35′ to 31° 36′ N., and long. 71° 39′ to 72° 39′ E. Area, 2347 square miles. Population (1881) 171,713, namely, males 92,792, and females 78,921. Average density of population, 73 per square mile. Muhammadans numbered 137,121; Hindus, 32,168; Sikhs, 2417; and 'others,' 7. Of a total assessed area in 1878–79, according to the last quinquennial agricultural statistics published by the Punjab Government, 167,834 acres were returned as under cultivation, of which more than one-half, or 89,038 acres, were irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. Of the remainder, 682,700 were returned as grazing lands, 322,186 acres as cultivable but not under cultivation, and 382,446 acres as uncultivable waste. The average annual area under the principal crops for the five

years from 1877–78 to 1881–82 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 70,109 acres; *joár*, 16,171 acres; gram, 4164 acres; cotton, 13,172 acres; and vegetables, 3576 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £19,660. The sub-divisonal establishment, including the head-quarters staff, comprised in 1883 a Deputy Commissioner, two Assistant Commissioners, a *tahsíldár*, and a *munsif*. These officers preside over 5 civil and 4 criminal courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 140 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 227.

Jhang.—Town and municipality in Jhang District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 16′ 16″ N., long. 72° 21′ 45″ E. Population (1881) 9055, namely, 4270 Hindus, 4636 Muhammadans, 143 Sikhs, and 6 'others.' The sister town of MAGHIANA, containing the civil station for the District, lies 2 miles south of Jhang, and has a population of 12,574 persons, giving a grand total for both of 21,629. They form together a single municipality, and may be regarded as practically one town; situated about 3 miles to the east of the present bed of the Chenáb, 10 and 13 miles respectively north-west of its junction with the Jehlam. Jhang itself lies on the lowland, a little apart from the regular lines of trade; and since the removal of the Government offices to Maghiáná, it has yielded its commerce and importance to its younger rival. The town is traversed by a single main street, running east and west, lined on either side with masonry shops built on a uniform plan. All the streets and lanes are paved with brick, and well drained. Outside the town are the school buildings with a pretty fountain, the dispensary, and police buildings. The old town of Jhang was founded by Mal Khán, a Siál chieftain, in 1462, and was for long the capital of a Muhammadan State. It was situated south-west of the modern town, and has been long since swept away by encroachments of the river, although some traces of it are still discernible. The present town was founded at the beginning of the 17th century, in the reign of the Emperor Aurangzeb, by one Lál Náth, the ancestor of the present 'Nath Sahib' of Jhang. On one side the approach to the town is almost barred by unsightly sandhills, but on the other it affords a tolerably picturesque appearance from numerous groves and gardens. (*See* JHANG DISTRICT.) Principal inhabitants, Siáls and Khatrís. Manufacture of country cloth, bought up by the Povindah merchants of Afghánistán. Imports of grain from Wazírábád and Miánwáli. Municipal revenue of Jhang-Maghiáná in 1882–83, £2475, or 2s. 3d. per head of population (21,872) within municipal limits.

Jhángár.—Village in the Sehwán Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 26° 19′ 20″ N., long. 67° 45′ 50″ E. Population under 2000. Jhángár, situated to the south of the Manchpar lake, is 12 miles [illegible] of S[illegible] ith which it is connected by road. School, [illegible]

Jhanidah.—Sub-division of Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 22′ 15″ to 23° 47′ N., long. 88° 57′ 33″ to 89° 24′ 45″ E. Area, 475 square miles; towns and villages, 824; houses, 44,668. Population (1872) 286,461; in 1881, 326,835, of whom 115,897 were Hindus, 210,895 Muhammadans, and 43 Christians. Males numbered 160,754, and females 166,081. Average number of inhabitants per square mile, 688; villages per square mile, 1·73; houses per square mile, 96; inmates per house, 7·3. This Sub-division contained in 1882–83, 1 magisterial and revenue court, 1 civil court, and 1 small cause court; 3 registration offices; 3 police circles (*thánás*); a regular police force of 64 men, with a village watch numbering 588. The formation of this Sub-division was due to the indigo riots in 1861.

Jhanidah.—Town in Jhanidah Sub-division, Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 32′ 50″ N., and long. 89° 13′ E. Situated on the river Nabagangá, 28 miles north of Jessor town. Large *bázár*, and trade in sugar, rice, and pepper; communication chiefly carried on by means of the river, which, however, is gradually silting up; a road connects the town with Chuádángá, a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway. A large tank near Jhanidah was formerly the scene of frequent robberies and outrages. A bi-weekly market is held every Thursday and Sunday near the *bázár*, at which the idol of Kálí, in the market, receives a handful of everything brought for sale. Population above 2000.

Jhanjhána.—Agricultural town in Shamli *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 30′ 55″ N., long. 77° 15′ 45″ E. Situated on the plain, between the Jumna river and canal, 30 miles west of Muzaffarnagar town. Population (1881) 5655, namely, Hindus, 3115; Muhammadans, 2452; and Jains, 88. Area of town site, 76 acres. Occupies the site of an old brick fort; canal distributary flows close to the town. Water-holes exist in the immediate neighbourhood, and during the rains the whole country for many miles is flooded. Fever, small-pox, and cholera are common diseases. Police station, post-office. A village police force and a few sweepers are maintained under the provisions of the Chaukídárí Act (xx. of 1856).

Jhanjhárpur.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 15′ 50″ N., long. 86° 19′ 11″ E.; 14 miles south-east of Madhubaní. Famous for its brass utensils, particularly the *pánbattá* or box for holding betel-leaf, and the *gangájoli* or water-pot. Two *bázárs*; large grain market. Situated near the main road from Darbhangah to Purniah. Temple of Rakalmála. Jhanjhárpur formerly belonged to a family of Rájputs. It is now the property of the Mahárájá of Darbhangah, and the appointed residence of the Rání on the occasions of her confinement. Population (1872) 3940. Not returned separately as a town in the Census Report of 1881.

Jhánsi.—A Division under a Commissioner in the North-Western

Provinces, comprising the three Districts of Jhansi, Jalaun, and Lalitpur, each of which see separately. Situated between 24° 11′ and 26° 26′ N. lat., and between 78° 14′ and 79° 55′ E. long. The Division contains a large portion of the tract known as Bundelkhand. Area, 4983·6 square miles. Population in 1872, 934,934; in 1881, 1,000,457, being an increase of 65,523, or 6·1 per cent., in the nine years. Number of towns (1881), 12, and of villages, 2140; houses, 155,319. Of the total population of 1,000,457, males numbered 518,828, or 51·8 per cent., and females 481,629, or 48·2 per cent. Average density of population, 200·7 per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·43; persons per town or village, 465; houses per square mile, 31·1; persons per house, 6·4. Nearly the entire population, namely 942,397, or 94·2 per cent., were Hindus. Muhammadans numbered only 44,792; Jains, 12,447; Sikhs, 100; Christians, 714; and Pársís, 7. Among *high-caste* Hindus, Bráhmans numbered 111,034; Rájputs, 72,131; and Káyasths, 17,819. The most numerous caste in the Division are the despised Chamárs, 134,398, the other important castes according to numerical superiority being—Kachhís, 82,612; Lodhís, 63,493; Ahírs, 61,470; Korís, 44,280; Kurmís, 37,651; Baniyás, 29,231; Gadariás, 25,725; Telís, 24,286; and Náis, 22,892.

Total adult male cultivators and agricultural labourers, 211,730, cultivating an average of 6½ acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil was 607,354, or 60·70 per cent. of the Divisional population. The total adult male and female agriculturists numbered 340,279, of whom 32,011 were returned as landholders, 951 as estate agents, 299,006 as cultivators, and 78,311 as agricultural labourers. Total cultivated area, 2148·8 square miles; of these, 1997·2 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, which in 1881 amounted (including local rates and cesses paid on the land) to £178,612, or an average of 2s. 9d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivators, £354,428, or an average of 5s. 1¾d. per cultivated acre. The three principal towns are Mau, population (1881) 15,981; Kalpi, 14,306; and Lalitpur, 10,684. Total number of civil and revenue courts, 31; criminal courts, 32. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 79; strength of regular police, 813 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 1430. Gross revenue (1882–83), £200,349.

Jhánsi.—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 25° 3′ 45″ and 25° 48′ 45″ N. lat., and between 78° 22′ 15″ and 79° 27′ 30″ E. long. Jhánsi forms the central District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by the Gwalior and Samthár States, and by Jaláun District; on the east by the river Dhasán, which separates it from Hamírpur District; on the south by the District of Lálitpur and the Orchha State; and on the west by the Datiyá, Gwalior, and Khania-

dháná States. The District is much intersected by the surrounding Native States. On the north, the States of Gwalior, Datiyá, and Samthár; and towards the south and east, the Orchha State, and the *Hasht-bháya jágírs* of Tori Fatehpur, Bijna, Pahári-Banka, and Dhurwái, encroach on Jhánsi, or are interlaced with it. Single villages or groups of two or three villages belonging to one or other of these States are scattered like islands throughout the District. In like manner, several small patches of British territory are isolated from the rest of the District, and completely surrounded by native territory. This intermixture of alien villages has been productive of great administrative difficulties, especially in years of famine. Area, 1567 square miles; population (1881) 333,227 souls. The administrative head-quarters are at the village of JHANSI NAOABAD, close to the native town of JHANSI, now belonging to Gwalior; but the most populous town in the District is MAU (Mhow).

Physical Aspects.—Jhánsi forms a portion of the hill country of Bundelkhand, sloping down southward from the outliers of the Vindhyan range to the tributaries of the Jumna (Jamuná) on the north. The south of the District is composed of long and narrow ridged hills which run parallel with one another from north-east to south-west. Through the intervening valleys the rivers flow down impetuously over ledges of granite or quartz. The rocky crests lie bare and exposed, but the shoulders are covered with low underbrush, and the bases with considerable trees. The principal chain in the District is that on which the fort of Karár is situated. It rises in Garothá *parganá*, and runs parallel with the Betwá river, till it is finally lost in the clusters of hills in the neighbourhood of Barwá Ságar. Northward of the hilly region stretches an intermediate strip of broken country, dotted with isolated heights, and deeply excavated near the banks of the larger rivers by short watercourses which drain the surrounding table-land. Here the rocky granite chains gradually lose themselves in clusters of smaller hills, amongst which are situated a series of magnificent artificial lakes, partially surrounded by the overhanging heights, and enclosed on their open sides by embankments of solid masonry. Some of them belong to the same age as those in the District of HAMIRPUR, having been constructed about 900 years since by the Chandel Rájás of Mahoba; but others date back no further than the 17th or 18th century, and are the work of Bundela princes. The principal of these lakes are the Barwá Ságar, situated twelve miles east of Jhánsi; the Arjár lake, about eight miles east of Barwá Ságar; and the Kachneyá lake, about eight miles east of Arjár on the road to Mau.

The northern portion of Jhánsi consists of the level plain of Bundelkhand, distinguished for its deep black soil, known as *már*, and admirably adapted for the cultivation of cotton. The District is intersected

or bounded by three principal rivers—the Pahúj, the Betwá, and the Dhasán, all of which are liable to be flooded in the rainy season; and on these occasions Jhánsi is almost completely cut off from communication with the outer world. There are many minor streams, most of which are feeders of the Dhasán. Government forest lands occupy about 23,000 acres. The principal forest tract, and the only one in which teak and timber trees of any size are found, is the Bábina jungle, lying along the banks of the Betwá in the southern portion of *parganá* Jhánsi. There are four other patches of scrub jungle along the eastern boundary of the District, near the Dhasán, the principal trees, or rather bushes, being the *khair* (Acacia catechu), *reungá* (Acacia leucophloa), and *dhák* (Butea frondosa). In addition to the forest tracts, there are nine grass preserves, or *runds*, the produce of which is annually put up to auction by the Forest Department. The wild animals common to the District include the tiger, leopard, many varieties of deer, the hyena, wolf, lynx, and wild dog. Among birds are the bustard, partridge, grouse, quail, plover, and the usual species of wild goose, duck, and teal.

History.—The Parihárs, a Rájput tribe, are pointed out by tradition as the earliest Aryan immigrants into Jhánsi, where they still possess 24 villages. But nothing is known with certainty as to the history of this District before the period of Chandel rule, about the 11th century of our era. (*See* HAMIRPUR.) To this epoch must be referred the artificial reservoirs and architectural remains of the hilly region. After the overthrow of the Mahoba dynasty, the Chandels were succeeded in this portion of their dominions by their servants the Khángars, who built the fort of Karár, now lying just outside the British border, on an intrusive spur of the Orchha State. About the 14th century, the Khángars in their turn fell before the first fierce irruption of the Bundelas, a spurious Rájput tribe, who poured down upon the plains from the southern mountains, and placed their earliest capital at Mau (Mhow). Thence they attacked and conquered the fortress of Karár, and gradually spread themselves over the whole region which now bears their name. The great Bundela leader, Rudra Pratáp, from whom most of the distinguished families in Bundelkhand trace their descent, founded the city of Orchha, which thenceforth became the capital of his race. Under his descendants, the District long practically maintained its independence of the Musalmáns, though the Orchha Rájás from time to time made formal payments of tribute to the court of Delhi.

In the early part of the 17th century, the Orchha State was governed by Bir Singh Deo, who built the fort of Jhánsi. He incurred the heavy displeasure of Akbar, by the murder of Abul Fazl, the Emperor's favourite minister and historian, at the instigation

afterwards known as the Emperor Jahángír. A force was accordingly sent against him in 1602, the country was ravaged and devastated, but Bír Singh himself contrived to escape. On the accession of his patron, Salím, in 1605, he was naturally pardoned, and rose into great favour. But when, on the death of that Emperor in 1627, Sháh Jahán mounted the throne, Bír Singh revolted. His rebellion was unsuccessful; and although he was permitted to keep possession of his dominions, he never regained all his former power and independence. During the troubled times which succeeded, Orchha was sometimes in the hands of the Musalmáns, and sometimes fell under the power of the Bundela chieftains, Champat Rái and his son Chhatar Sál. When, in 1707, the last-named national leader obtained from Bahádur Sháh a confirmation in the possessions which he had conquered, the present District of Jhánsi was included in the grant. But even after this nominal pacification, the Muhammadan *subahdárs* continued to make irruptions into the Bundela country; and in 1732, Chhatar Sál found it expedient to call in the aid of the Maráthás, who were then invading the Central Provinces under their first Peshwá, Bájí Rao. The Maráthás, never slow to insinuate themselves where opportunity offered, came to his assistance with their accustomed promptitude, and were rewarded on the Rájá's death, in 1734, by a bequest of one-third of his dominions. The territory so granted included portions of the modern Division of Jhánsi, but not the existing District itself. In 1742, however, the Maráthás found a pretext for attacking the Orchha State, and annexing that amongst other territories. Their general founded the city of Jhánsi, and peopled it with the inhabitants of Orchha.

The District remained under the power of the Peshwás for some thirty years, but after that period the Maráthá viceroys made themselves independent in all but name. Seo Ráo Bhao was *subahdár*, or governor, when the British first began to interest themselves in the affairs of Bundelkhand. By *sanad*, dated February 8, 1804, British protection was promised him; and this arrangement was confirmed by treaty in October 1806. Seo Ráo Bhao died in 1814, and was succeeded by his grandson, Rámchand Ráo. In June 1817, the Peshwá ceded to the East India Company his rights over Bundelkhand; and in November of the same year, the Government acknowledged the hereditary title of Rámchand Ráo and his descendants to all their existing possessions. In 1832, the title of *subahdár* was changed for that of Rájá. Rámchand Ráo proved a weak and inefficient administrator, his revenues fell considerably in amount, and his territories were overrun and plundered by the native tribes beyond the Pahúj. Much injury was inflicted upon the cultivators, who have scarcely yet recovered from their losses at this period. Rámchand Ráo died without issue in 1835. Four claimants appeared for his territories, and the British Government recognised his

great-uncle, Raghunáth Ráo, the second son of Seo Ráo Bhao, as heir to the principality. Under his administration, the revenue fell again to one-fourth of the sum which it had produced even during the management of his predecessor. His extravagance and debauchery compelled him to mortgage part of his territories to the Gwalior and Orchha States. He died heavily in debt, and without legitimate issue, in 1836.

Four claimants again presented themselves for the vacant succession, and a commission was appointed by the British Government to investigate their claims. Meanwhile, the Political Agent in Bundelkhand assumed the administration, in the interests of civil order. The decision of the commission was given in favour of Gangádhar Ráo, brother of the last Rájá, and sole surviving male descendant of Seo Ráo Bhao. As the new prince was of weak intellect, it was determined to carry on the administration by British agency, and to allow the Rájá a fixed pension, on the understanding that the administration should be restored to him as soon as the principality was relieved from the state of disorder into which it had fallen. A Superintendent was appointed, under whom the revenue immediately rose to double its previous amount. In 1842, the management was restored to Gangádhar Ráo, whose administration, judged by a native standard, proved satisfactory. The assessments, however, were high, and although not unfairly collected, pressed heavily on the people. The Rájá himself granted some partial remissions in years of scarcity, and was personally popular. Gangádhar Ráo died childless in 1853, and his territories lapsed to the British Government. The Jhánsi State, with Jaláun and Chanderi Districts, were then formed into a Superintendency, while a pension was granted to the Rání or widow of the late Rájá. The Rání, however, considered herself aggrieved, both because she was not allowed to adopt an heir, and because the slaughter of cattle was permitted in the Jhánsi territory. Reports were spread which excited the religious prejudices of the Hindus.

The events of 1857 accordingly found Jhánsi ripe for rebellion. In May, it was known that the troops were disaffected; and on the 5th of June, a few men of the 12th Native Infantry seized the fort containing the treasure and magazine. Many European officers were shot the same day. The remainder, who had taken refuge in a fort, capitulated a few days after, and were massacred with their families to the number of 66 persons, in spite of a promise of protection sworn on the Kurán and Ganges water. The Rání then attempted to seize the supreme authority; but the usual anarchic quarrels arose between the rebels, during which the Orchha leaders laid siege to Jhánsi, and plundered the country mercilessly. Numbers of the cultivators were hopelessly impoverished at this time, and it will be long before t[illegible] inflicted can be repaired. On the 5th of April 1858

were recovered by Sir Hugh Rose, who marched on to Kálpi without being able to leave a garrison at Jhánsi. After his departure, the rebellion broke out afresh, only the Gúrsarái chieftain in the north remaining faithful to the British cause. On the 11th August, a flying column under Colonel Liddell cleared out the rebels from Mau (Mhow); and, after a series of sharp contests with various guerilla leaders, the work of re-organization was fairly set on foot in November. The Ráni herself had previously fled with Tántiá Topí, and finally fell in battle at the foot of the rock fortress of Gwalior. Since that time, Jhánsi has remained a British District, and famines and floods alone have disturbed the course of the civil administration.

Jhánsi forms an unfortunate example of an Indian District which has suffered alike from the calamities of nature, and from the results of native misrule. Its uncertain rainfall, with the sudden floods and protracted droughts to which it is subject, will be referred to hereafter in the proper sections of this article. The pressure of high assessments under its Maráthá rulers and Rájás reduced the petty landholders and the peasantry to a very low standard of living. Occasional outbursts of furious misgovernment by half-insane debauchees intensified the general misery. Jhánsi was one of our most recently-acquired Districts in the North-Western Provinces, and when it lapsed to the British in 1853, it was in an impoverished state. The whole agricultural population was in debt to the village money-lenders. Under the native system, such debts went on from father to son; but the creditor could seldom sell up or utterly ruin the debtor, as the latter process would drive the ruined man off the land, and so deprive the Rájá of a rent-paying unit. The introduction of British rule brought with it the law of sale for debt, and the disorders of 1857-58 still further increased the wretchedness of the people. Famines and floods have also contributed to their misery, and the British Government had at length to face the fact that Jhánsi was a bankrupt District. After a series of attempted palliatives, the Jhánsi Encumbered Estates Act was passed in 1882. This Act practically amounts to a rural Insolvency Law for the District. It accepts the fact that a large number of the landholders cannot pay their debts, and it provides a procedure for an inquiry into the character of their liabilities, for a reduction of the same in cases where exorbitant interest has been taken, and for the ultimate discharge of the debtor. This procedure is worked by a special judge appointed for the purpose. Besides the equitable reduction of his debts, it provides a system of Government loans at low interest to the insolvent debtor, and eventually for the purchase of the encumbered estate by Government if no other course will suffice to meet the case of the insolvent. The Act has not yet been in force for a sufficient length of time to render it safe to offer an opinion here as to its ultimate

consequences. Meanwhile, as will be hereafter mentioned, the Government assessment on the land has been fixed at a low rate.

Population.—No District in the plains of the North-Western Provinces, with the exception of Lálitpur, is so sparsely inhabited as Jhánsi; and the population, though considerably increased since the introduction of British rule, has declined slightly under the pressure of famine in late years. The total number of inhabitants in 1865 was returned at 357,442; in 1872, it had fallen to 317,826, showing a decrease in eight years of 39,616 persons, or 11·08 per cent. In 1881, the population had slightly increased to 333,227, although it was still 24,215 below the figures for 1855. The area in 1881 was computed at 1567 square miles; the number of towns and villages was returned as 625, and the number of houses at 54,404. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 212; villages per square mile, 0·39; houses per square mile, 34·7; persons per village, 531; persons per house, 6·1. The sparseness of the population must be set down to the numerous misfortunes which have befallen Jhánsi in recent times. Excessive taxation, depredations by the mutineers in 1857–58, the growth of *káns* grass, famine, floods, and epidemics caused thousands to emigrate, besides the direct loss of life. But even under these unfavourable conditions, the population has increased since the days of native rule. The estimates formed in 1832 gave a population of 286,000 for 2922 square miles, then included in Jhánsi. The jurisdiction has been reduced to 1567 square miles, and the population in 1881 had increased even in this smaller area to 333,227 persons. Classified according to sex, there were, in 1881—males 172,884, and females 160,343; percentage of males to total population, 51·9. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males 63,409, and females 54,259; total children, 117,668, or 35·21 per cent.: 15 years and upwards—males 109,475, and females 106,084; total adults, 215,559, or 64·79 per cent.

As regards religious distinctions, the District is essentially Hindu, and the practice of killing cattle for food is one of the grievances complained of under British rule. Hinduism is professed by 316,429 persons, or 94·96 per cent. of the inhabitants. There are 13,758 Musalmáns, or 4·1 per cent., who hold only 4 villages, and possess no social or political importance. Jains number 2288; Sikhs, 70; and Pársís, 7. The Brahma Samáj has formed no settlement in the District. There is a Christian population of 675, consisting almost entirely of troops in the cantonment of MAU, besides the European civil officers at the head-quarters station. Europeans number 621; Eurasians, 20; and Native Christians, 34.

With regard to distinctions of caste among the Hindus, there are 35,073 Bráhmans, the most numerous class in the District except

the Chamárs; and they hold 102 villages, being a greater number than any other body, except the Ahírs. The Rájputs number 16,591, and hold 66 villages. Their most numerous clan is that of the Bundelas, the old dominant race, who, however, like many others included in the above total, are not held to be of pure Rájput blood. The Káyasths, or writer caste, number 6580. The Baniyás, or trading classes, number 10,763. But the mass of the Hindu population is composed of Súdras and those classified as 'other castes' in the Census Report, who amount in the aggregate to 247,422 persons, or four-fifths of the total Hindu inhabitants. Amongst them, the Chamárs are the largest body, being returned at 44,390 persons; but they hold only one village. Next come the Káchhís, who number 30,149, and hold seven villages. The Korís are reckoned at 20,191, but hold no villages, being chiefly employed as weavers in the larger towns. The Ahírs, who number 23,853, are the most important of the lower castes, owning as many as 107 villages. Other leading tribes are the Lodhís, with 25,066 persons and 68 villages; and the Kurmís, with 13,087 persons and 44 villages. Aboriginal tribes number 1809, but in the religious classification of the Census they are returned as Hindus.

Jhánsi District contains five towns with a population exceeding five thousand in 1881, namely, MAU (Mhow), 15,981; RANIPUR, 6846; GURSARAI, 6528; BARWA SAGAR, 6315; and BHANDER, 5665. JHANSI, the head-quarters station, although a military cantonment and a municipality, contains a population of only 2473. Total urban population, 43,748, or 13·2 per cent. of the District population. Of the 625 towns and villages comprising the District in 1881, 196 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 193 from two to five hundred; 166 from five hundred to a thousand; 57 from one to two thousand; 4 from two to three thousand; 4 from three to five thousand; 4 from five to ten thousand; and 1 upwards of fifteen thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census classified the male population under the following six main headings:—Class (1) Professional, including all military and civil servants of Government, and the learned professions, 5429; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1009; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 2898; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 73,462; (5) industrial, including all manufacturers and artisans, 29,258; (6) indefinite and non-productive, comprising general labourers, male children, etc., 60,828.

Agriculture.—Jhánsi, in the nature of its soil, the character of its people, the poor means of irrigation, and the want of good communications, is perhaps worse off than any other District in the North-Western Provinces, except its still more unfortunate neighbour, Lálitpur. In the best seasons, its produce is only just sufficient to feed its scanty and scattered population, and droughts or floods expose it to the greatest

hardships. Out of a total area of 1,002,734 acres, only 428,348 acres were under cultivation in 1866, and 450,560 acres in 1881, the assessed cultivated area being 411,584 acres. The year is divided into the usual rain and cold-weather seasons. The principal *kharif* or rain crops are—*joár* (millet), which in 1881 occupied 93,975 acres; cotton, grown on 34,074 acres; and *bájra* (another millet), on 10,893 acres. There were also 21,400 acres under *til*, an oil-seed, and 21,300 acres under a kind of pulse known as *kodo*. The total area of the rain crops was 232,054 acres, of which 26,080 acres were devoted to fibres, dye-stuffs, and oil-seeds. The *rabi* or cold-weather crops covered an area of 182,058 acres, of which 3228 acres were cultivated with oil-seeds. The chief *rabi* products were—wheat, 113,779 acres, gram, 45,348 acres; and barley, 1374 acres. There were also 8882 acres employed in raising the *ál* dye, procured from the root of the Morinda citrifolia, a rain crop, which is only dug up every third year. It is commercially the most important product, and is grown on the best land. The town of Mauranipur has long been famous for the manufacture of a red cloth called *kharuá*, which is dyed from this root. The colour imparted by *ál* is fixed by alum, and is permanent. In Jhánsi, as in other parts of Bundelkhand, the *ál* is really what enables the cultivators in certain villages to pay their rent; and in many years food would be scarce but for the importation of grain in return for the exports of the dye. The destructive *káns* grass formerly proved as great a pest here as elsewhere in Bundelkhand, but it has now been almost eradicated. Although the ordinary food production of Jhánsí is barely adequate to the necessities of the people, the District has occasional years of exceptionally favourable rainfall, in which a considerable exportation of grain takes place.

Irrigation is little practised. There are, indeed, some channels in connection with the artificial lakes before mentioned, but these are in a ruinous state, and water very little land in comparison with their original capacities. Most of them leak, and they require thorough renovation before they can be employed to any good purpose. Improvements, however, have been commenced, and will doubtless succeed in greatly benefiting the District. A scheme for restoring some of the most useful tanks, and for enlarging others, has been sanctioned, and work commenced. The construction of the Betwá Canal has also been commenced as a part of the Bundelkhand irrigation scheme. The larger half of the land is held by proprietors or tenants having occupancy rights. The landowners themselves cultivate 40·87 per cent. of the tilled land; tenants paying by lump sum not liable to enhancement, 16·5 per cent.; tenants liable to enhancement, 10·9 per cent.; and tenants-at-will, 32·6 per cent. The native governments acknowledged no proprietary rights; and there have been great difficulties accordingly in settling what persons should be regarded as tenants and landowners respectively.

The male adult agriculturists in 1881, including agricultural labourers, numbered 70,630, cultivating an average of $6\frac{1}{2}$ acres each. The total population, however, dependent on the soil was 201,488, or 60·47 per cent. The total male and female adult agriculturists numbered 122,084, of whom 18,439 were landholders, 224 estate agents, 67,769 cultivators, and 35,652 agricultural labourers. A holding of 50 acres would be considered as an unusually large farm for a single family; one of 25 acres as a very comfortable one, and one of 10 acres as small. A holding of 5 acres does not yield more than Rs. 3, or 6s. a month to the cultivator. As a rule, the cultivators, whether they have occupancy rights or are mere tenants-at-will, are very poor, living from hand to mouth, and unable to meet the loss of a single season's crop, especially in the tract between the Betwá and the Dhasán, which is specially liable to droughts and blights. The people are in a state of hereditary indebtedness to the village banker, the result of the frequent calamities of nature which afflict the District, together with the excessive rates of assessment imposed by the native Rájás, and carried out by their British successors until the true state of the District was forced upon the knowledge of the Government. Total cultivated area, 704 square miles, of which 643·1 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, which in 1881 amounted (including local rates and cesses paid on the land) to £52,410, or an average of 2s. $6\frac{1}{8}$d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivator, £113,583, or an average of 5s. $0\frac{1}{2}$d. per cultivated acre. The rates of rent vary from 2s. 11d. for the worst soils, to 9s. 4d. for the best. Wages have approximately doubled of late years. The present rates are as follows:—First-class carpenters, 9d. to 1s. in towns, $7\frac{1}{2}$d. in villages; second-class ditto, 3d. to 6d.; blacksmiths, 3d. to $7\frac{1}{2}$d.; first-class masons, $4\frac{1}{2}$d. to 6d.; first-class coolies, $3\frac{3}{4}$d.; second-class, 3d.; boys, $1\frac{7}{8}$d. Prices ruled as follows on the 1st January 1883:—Wheat, $20\frac{3}{4}$ *sers* the rupee, or 5s. $4\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.; gram, $31\frac{1}{2}$ *sers* the rupee, or 3s. $6\frac{1}{2}$d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, $31\frac{1}{4}$ *sers* the rupee, or 3s. $6\frac{3}{4}$d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Jhánsi is specially exposed to blights, droughts, floods, hailstorms, epidemics, and their natural consequence, famine. Even in favourable years, the consumption of the District is estimated to exceed its production by one-fifth. This estimate represents the fact that the food produce of Jhánsi in ordinary seasons scarcely exceeds the food demand, while it is considered that scarcity may be feared every five years on an average. The famines of 1783, 1833, 1837, and 1847 were particularly severe. The famine of 1868–69 was also felt very heavily in Jhánsi. The autumn of 1868 had been a period of drought, during which the whole *kharíf* crop was destroyed; and it was succeeded by torrents of rain in the subsequent year, by which the

rabi was reduced to half its usual quantity. In July 1869, the bridges and roads were broken down by floods, and the whole country rendered impassable. Through the failure of the crops and the cutting off of communications, an absolute lack of food occurred. So long as the roads remained open, grain was imported in considerable quantities, under Government direction, from Cawnpur and Ságar; but after July 1869, the roads became useless, owing to the floods, and epidemics burst out among the starving people. Small-pox and sun-stroke carried off thousands of the enfeebled poor, while cholera and fever appeared with the rainy season. The number of deaths recorded rose from 3180 in 1868, to 20,331 in the succeeding year.

Relief measures were early adopted, and poorhouses were opened at Jhánsi in September 1858, at Mau and Ránipur in December, and at Barwá Ságar in February 1869. Thirteen famine works were also undertaken, in the shape of roads, bridges, and irrigation embankments. The daily average of persons relieved for thirteen months was 4494, of whom 2284 obtained gratuitous aid at poorhouses, and 2210 were employed on relief works. The total cost amounted to £15,032. The famine began to abate towards the end of 1869, but the District long continued to bear marks of distress. From 10 to 20 per cent. of land was thrown out of cultivation, partly owing to the loss of 150,000 head of cattle—one-half the total stock—and partly to the spread of *káns* grass, induced by the floods. Again in 1879, the failure of the *rabi* crops induced a partial famine, chiefly confined to *parganá* Moth. Relief works were opened, on which from one to two thousand persons were employed. A seasonable rainfall, however, soon relieved the distress. Famine rates are reached when the better grains sell at 10, and the poorer at 12, *sers* the rupee, or 11s. 2½d. and 9s. 4d. per cwt. respectively. The means of communication are insufficient, especially in that portion of the District which lies between the Betwá and the Dhasán, where absolute failure of supplies may be expected in years of drought or flood. The intermixture of villages belonging to Native States renders the organization of relief a task of great difficulty.

Commerce and Trade.—As the District is not able to supply its own wants in the matter of food stuffs, it imports instead of exporting grain. In return, it gives the *ál* dye and cotton. There are no manufactures, except a little dyed cloth. A large transport trade, however, is conducted *viá* Mau, between Central India and the Doáb. The District has no railway station within or adjoining its limits. The chief road is that from Jhánsi through Kálpi to Cawnpur, having a length within the District of 41 miles, well bridged and metalled. The other roads are not good, and are liable to be cut off in times of flood. Total length of District roads, 701 miles. The District contains no printing press

but there are two lithographic presses in the native city of Jhánsi, just outside the borders, where work is executed in Urdú and Hindí.

Administration.—In 1860, the revenue of Jhánsi amounted to £95,990, of which £77,146, or more than three-fourths, was contributed by the land-tax. The expenditure at the same date reached the sum of £49,551, or little more than one-half the revenue. In 1870, the total receipts had been reduced to £87,987, of which sum only £56,085 was contributed by the land-tax. The decrease, however, is partly due to the cession of three *parganás* to Gwalior in 1861. At the same time, the expenditure in 1871 had increased to £59,112. The District revenue, however, continued steadily to decrease, and in 1881 amounted to only £60,669, the land-tax having been reduced to £44,076. The expenditure in 1881 was £18,741, the decrease being largely due to the abolition of the inland customs staff. The present assessments of land revenue are intentionally very light, in order that the country may have time to recover itself. The land-tax as shown in this paragraph, is little more than one-half (£44,076 in 1881) of what it was shortly after the District passed under British rule (£77,146 in 1860).

The District is administered on the non-regulation system, under which civil, criminal, and fiscal functions vest in the same officer. Its affairs are managed by a Deputy Commissioner, two Assistant Commissioners, three extra-Assistant Commissioners, and four *tahsíldárs.* The Commissioner for the Jhánsi Division is also stationed at Jhánsi Naoábád. There are 10 magisterial and 10 civil courts. The regular police numbered, in 1882, 577 men, maintained at a cost of £7287, of which sum £612 was paid from local sources. The village watchmen or *chaukídárs* numbered 723 men, at an annual cost of £2602. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1300 men, or 1 in every 252 inhabitants and every 1·30 square miles, at a cost of £9889, or 7d. per inhabitant. The total number of persons convicted of any offence was 881 in 1871, and 1870 in 1882, or 1 in every 180 of the population. The immense majority of convictions are for theft and housebreaking. There is one jail in the District, at the head-quarters station, besides a lock-up at Mau, the daily average number of prisoners in which was 234 in 1870, and 172 in 1882.

Education unfortunately shares in the general backwardness of Jhánsi. Instead of progressing, it has steadily retrograded during the years 1860 to 1870. In the first-named year there were 173 schools in the District, with 3764 pupils, maintained at a cost of £957; in 1870, while the expenditure, chiefly borne by the State, had increased to £1247, the number of schools had declined to 110, and the pupils numbered only 2235; in 1882, the State-inspected

schools numbered only 63, and the pupils 1988. There are, however, a number of indigenous uninspected private schools; and the Census Report of 1881 returned 3015 boys and 56 girls as under instruction, besides 10,876 males and 140 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The District is divided into 4 fiscal divisions (*parganás*), containing 623 estates; average land revenue paid by each estate in 1882, £70, 1s. 7d. The District contains 2 municipalities, Mau with Ránípur, and Jhánsi Naoábád. In 1875–76, their joint income amounted to £1785, and their expenditure to £1845. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £1618; expenditure, £2117; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head of their population (25,300). The head-quarters station has a population of only 2473, and it is inconveniently close to the foreign city of Jhánsi, in Gwalior State, which contains 26,772 inhabitants. Negotiations have several times been commenced for such exchanges of territory with the neighbouring native principalities as would render this straggling District more compact and more easily administered, but hitherto they have met with little success.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Jhánsi, like that of Bundelkhand generally, is hot and very dry, owing to the want of trees or shade, and the radiation from bare rocks or arid wastes; but it is not considered unhealthy. The average mean annual temperature at the civil station is about 80° F. In 1881, the general mean temperature was 79·8°, ranging from a maximum of 116·3° in May and June, to a minimum of 42·3° in January. The mean monthly temperature in 1881 was as follows:—January 65·5°, February 72·6°, March 75·6°, April 90·3°, May 96·6°, June 91·3°, July 82·3°, August 80·4°, September 83·2°, October 82·7°, November 71·8°, and December 65°. The annual rainfall for a period of twenty years ending 1881 was 35·24 inches. In the latter year the rainfall was 53·85 inches, or 18·61 inches above the average. The population are habitually under-fed, and they consequently succumb readily to slight diseases. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 was 12,852, or 38·36 per thousand of the whole population; and of these, 6542 were assigned to fevers. There are two charitable dispensaries, namely at the civil station and at Mau-Ránípur. During the year 1883 they afforded medical relief to 401 in-door and 5425 out-door patients. [For further information regarding Jhánsi, see the *Settlement Report* of the District, compiled by Captain Gordon, Mr. Daniell, C.S., Colonel Davidson, and Mr. Jenkinson, C.S., published in 1871. Also the *Gazetteer of the North-Western Provinces*, by Mr. E. T. Atkinson, vol. i. pp. 236–302 (Allahábád, 1874); the *Census Report of the North-Western Provinces;* and the various annual *Provincial and Departmental Reports* from 1880 to 1883.]

Jhánsi.—Western *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Pro-

vinces, consisting of a narrow hilly strip of land along the west bank of the river Betwá, much cut up by intrusive or isolated portions of adjacent Native States. Area, 379 square miles, of which 186 were cultivated in 1872. Population in 1872, 72,861; in 1881, 80,971, namely, males 43,223, and females 37,748. In 1881, Hindus numbered 76,104; Muhammadans, 3544; Jains, 575; and 'others,' 748. Number of towns and villages, 166. Land revenue (1882), £8583; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £10,697; rental paid by cultivators, £21,752. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 11 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 94 officers and men, besides 123 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Jhánsi Naoábád.—Village and administrative head-quarters of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 37′ E. The village lies at the extreme western limit of the District, close under the walls of Jhánsi city, which is now included within the Native State of Gwalior. The fort, also belonging to Gwalior, overlooks and commands the civil station and military cantonment. The population of the village and civil station, which in 1872 was only 536, had increased by 1881 to 2473. Jhánsi Naoábád stands in the midst of a wild and rocky country, and is cut off from communication with other British posts during seasons of flood on the Betwá. In the summer months the heat is intense, the thermometer often standing at 108° F. in the shade up to 6 P.M. Previous to the cession of *parganás* Pachor, Karera, and part of Jhánsi to Gwalior in 1861, the head-quarters occupied a central position; but they now stand quite at one side of the present District. Lines exist in the cantonment for European and native troops. The civil station is a straggling village, consisting of the residences of the officials, together with court-houses, *tahsílí*, police station, dispensary, schools, and post-office. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £106; from taxes, £72, or 7d. per head of population.

Jhárcha.—Town in Sikandarábád *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* JARCHA.

Jhariá.—Coal-field in Mánbhúm District, Bengal, situated in the *parganá* of the same name, a few miles S. and S.E. of Párasnáth Hill, Bengal. The following notice is extracted from a paper by Mr. F. Hughes, published in vol. v. of the *Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India*:—The field commences at a distance of about 170 miles from Calcutta, nearly south of the village of Gobindpur on the Grand Trunk Road, and extends east and west for about 18 miles, its greatest breadth, in a line north and south, being about 10 miles. The general truth, that geological structure mainly determines the physical appearance of a country, is admirably illustrated and borne out in the present instance, the configuration of the surface of the ground

presenting the same uniform type of aspect which is common in areas composed of coal-bearing rocks, and resembling in almost every detail the appearances exhibited by the Ráníganj field. The coal area generally is flat, and nowhere rises into undulating scenery. There is scarcely a single elevation worthy of the name of a hill; only a few low ridges and escarpments, principally along the eastern and northern boundaries of the field, where the hard grits and sandstones of the lower, or Barákhar, division of the Dámodar series crop out. The excellence of the coal in the Ráníganj group of the Ráníganj field is well known; but in the Jhariá field, although there are many seams in the upper series superior to some in the Barákhars, the finest coal and the freest from ash occurs in the latter. In the Karharbárí field, 28 to 30 miles north of the Jhariá field, much of the coal there, exclusively of Barákhar age, is superior to that of other districts, some of it yielding on assay as small an amount of ash as 2·5 and 4 per cent. Coking coal, as far as experiments have yet been made, is found only there; and the evidence both in that and the present field tends to show that, whatever the average superiority of the coal in the Ráníganj group over those of the Barákhars may be, the best quality of coal is found amongst the latter. In making a comparision of the economic values of the two series in this field, it must be remembered that, in addition to the comparative size of the seams, their freedom from partings, and their constancy, the question of the amount of dip enters largely into the subject. In India, where appliances for working collieries are necessarily limited, and human labour is in many cases the only power available, a slight increase in the angle of inclination would necessitate such an addition to the expenditure, owing to the greater depth from which the water would have to be pumped out and the coal raised, that whereas a seam dipping at 12° and 16° might profitably be worked, one inclined at 20° or even 18° would have to be abandoned, unless its superior quality enabled it to fetch a higher price in the market. Bearing this in mind, then, it is evident from what has been stated in this report that seams in the Barákhar group have the great advantage over those in the Ráníganj series of dipping at much smaller angles, thus affording greater facilities for being worked. Indeed, the inclination throughout the Ráníganj group is so high, that its economic value may be set down as being nearly *nil* until the seams of the Barákhar group shall have been exhausted.

Jharia Garkhari.—State in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* DANG STATES.

Jheend.—Native State in the Punjab.—*See* JIND.

Jhelum.—River, District, *tahsíl*, and town in the Punjab.—*See* JEHLAM.

Jhind.—Native State in the Punjab.—*See* JIND.

Jhinjhuwárá.—Petty State in the Jhaláwár Sub-division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 165 square miles. Population (1881) 15,766. Jhinjhuwárá consists of 17 villages, with 9 independent tribute-payers. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £8000. Tribute of £1107, 7s. is paid to the British Government. Inhabitants mostly Kolís. There were formerly three salt-works in this State. They are all now closed, and the *tálukdárs* receive on this account an annual compensation from the British Government. Saltpetre is also found in the State. A portion of the adjacent Rann, with several small islands, is owned by the State. Jhilánand, the principal of these islands, is about 10 square miles in area, and contains several small tanks and a hot spring called Bhotwa. Anand, a king afflicted with leprosy, is said to have been marvellously cured of his disease by bathing in this spring.

Jhinjhuwárá.—Town in the Petty State of Jhinjhuwárá in the Jháláwár Division of Káthiáwár, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 21′ N., long. 71° 42′ E. Population (1872) 3058; (1881) 3770. Jhinjhuwárá is an ancient town with a fort and well-built cut-stone reservoir or tank. The gates of the ruined outer fortifications are fine specimens of ancient Hindu architecture. Many of the stones bear the inscription Mahansri Udal; tradition declares this Udal to have been the minister of Sidraj Jayasingh of Anhilwárá Pátan, to whom is ascribed the construction of both fort and tank, and who is said to have been born here. Jhinjhuwárá fell under the Sultáns of Ahmadábád and became one of their fortified posts. Afterwards it was a *tháná* of the Mughal Government under Akbár. On the decay of the empire it was wrested from them by Kambhoji, the ancestor of the present *tálukdárs*, who claim to have been originally Jhálás of the Dhrángadra house, but were outcasted owing to intermarriage with Kolís. Jhinjhuwárá is said to have been founded by one Jhunjho, a Rabári. The town is about 16 miles north of Khárághora station on the Patri Branch of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. Post-office and school.

Jhirak.—Sub-division and town, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* JERRUCK.

Jhiri.—River of Assam, which rises in lat. 25° 16′ N., long. 93° 24′ E., amid the Bárel (Baráil) Hills, and flows south into the Barák, in lat. 24° 43′ N., long. 93° 7′ E., forming for a considerable distance the boundary between Cachar District on the west, and the independent State of Manipur. It runs in a narrow valley, shut in between two steep spurs of the Bárel range.

Jhúnjhnu.—*Parganá* and town in the Shaikhawátí District of the Native State of Jaipur, Rájputána. The *parganá* of Jhúnjhnu is one of four *parganás* held by the chief of Shaikhawátí, one of the principal feudatories of the Jaipur State.—*See* KHETRI. Population

of the town (1881) 9538, namely 5064 males and 4474 females. Hindus numbered 6167; Muhammadans, 3370; and 'others,' 1. The town is situated on the route from Delhi to Bíkanir, 120 miles south-west of the former, and 130 east of the latter. The hill, at the eastern base of which it stands, is visible for miles round, and has been seen at a distance of 95 miles with the naked eye on a clear afternoon. Here, during the existence of the Shaikhawátí confederacy, each of the five confederated chiefs had a stronghold. Lat. 28° 6′ N., long. 75° 24′ 45″ E.

Jhúsi.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces, opposite the city of Allahábád, on the left bank of the Ganges, situated in lat. 25° 26′ N., long. 81° 58′ E. An ancient town traditionally dating from 2200 B.C. in the Puranic age as the city of Kesi or Pratisthán, and the residence of the first prince of the Lunar dynasty, Pururavas. In the time of Akbar, the place was one of the triangle of cities (Prayág and Jalálábád being the two others) forming the centre from which the *subah* of Allahábád was ruled. The town consists of a new and an old quarter, the former containing (1881) 2267, and the latter 1404 inhabitants—total, 3671. A bridge of boats in the dry season, and a ferry during the rains, connects Jhúsi with Dáráganj, a suburb of Allahábád, on the other side of the river. It is a station of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, and contains an imperial post-office and first-class police station. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied, amounting in 1881–82 to £93.

Jiá Dhaneswari (*Dhansiri*).—River in Darrang District, Assam; which rises beyond the frontier amid the Aka Hills, and flows south into the Brahmaputra. It is navigable throughout the year for native boats of 4 tons burthen.

Jiáganj.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal, on the left bank of the Bhágirathí. Lat. 24° 14′ 30″ N., long. 88° 18′ 31″ E.; situated three miles above Murshidábád city, and opposite Azimganj railway station. In 1857, the revenue surveyor stated that Jiáganj carried on a large trade in cotton, saltpetre, sugar, rice, and silk. According to the registration returns of 1876–77, the total imports were valued at £123,000, chiefly salt, oil-seeds, tobacco, and *ghi;* the principal exports were piece-goods and rice. No later returns are available, owing to an alteration in the system of river registration of trade.

Jigni.—Petty State under the Bundelkhand Agency, Central India. Area, 21·28 square miles. Population (1881) 3427, dwelling in 6 villages, containing 510 houses. Density of population, 165·7 persons per square mile; houses per village, 24; persons per house, 6·7. Hindus number 3339; Muhammadans, 88. Jigni State is situated south of the Betwá, at its confluence with the Dhasán river in the north-west of Hamirpur District. The State, at the time of the British

occupation of Bundelkhand, consisted of 14 villages, which were attached in consequence of contumacy, but 6 villages were restored in 1810. The present Ráo Jágírdár is named Lakshman Singh, a Hindu Bundela. He holds a *sanad* of adoption. The revenue of the State is about £1400. There is a military force of about 57 infantry.

Jilo or **Jilo-Pátan.**—Town in the Tourwáti District of the Jaipur State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5941, namely, 3417 males and 2524 females. Hindus numbered 5492, and Muhammadans 449.

Jínd (*Jhínd*).—One of the Native States situated to the east of the Sutlej (Satlaj) river, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab. It consists of three or four isolated tracts, with a total area of 1232 square miles. The principality, which is one of the Phulkián States (*see* PATIALA), was founded in 1763, and the chief was recognised as Rájá by the Emperor of Delhi in 1768. The Rájás of Jínd have always been steady adherents of the British Government. Among the foremost and most sincere of those who proffered their allegiance after the overthrow of the Maráthás was Rájá Bágh Singh of Jínd; and the good offices of this chief were not unimportant in the negotiations which followed the advance of Lord Lake in pursuit of Holkar to the banks of the Beas (Biás). In recognition of these services, Lord Lake confirmed to the Rájá the grants of land he held under the Emperors of Delhi, and under Sindhia. After the Sutlej campaign, the Governor-General bestowed a grant of land of about £300 a year in value on the Rájá of Jínd, as a mark of satisfaction with his conduct. In 1857, Swarúp Singh, then Rájá, was the first to march against the mutineers at Delhi. His troops acted as the vanguard of the army, and he remained in the British camp until the re-occupation of the city, and a portion of his troops took part in the assault. For these services he received a grant of additional territory, yielding £11,681 per annum, on condition of fidelity and political and military service in time of difficulty and danger. The present Rájá, Raghbír Singh, G.C.S.I., is a Sikh of the Sidhu Ját tribe, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. At the Imperial Assemblage at Delhi on January 1, 1877, he was appointed a Counsellor of the Empress.

The Jínd territory comprises an area of 1232 square miles, and has a population returned in 1881 at 249,862, namely, males 136,909, and females 112,953. Hindus numbered 210,627; Muhammadans, 34,247; Sikhs, 4335; Jains, 649; Christians, 3; unspecified, 1. The State contains 8 towns, 415 villages, and 51,394 houses, of which 42,078 are occupied and 9316 unoccupied. Number of resident families, 62,787. Average density of population, 203 persons per square mile. The revenue has rapidly increased of late years, and is now between 6 and 7 *lákhs* of rupees, or between £60,000 and £70,000. The military force consists of 6 horse and 6 mule guns,

234 artillerymen, 392 cavalry, 1600 infantry. The Rájá supplies 25 horsemen for general service in British territory.

Jínd.—Chief town of Jínd State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá; situated in lat. 29° 19′ N., and long. 76° 23′ E. Population (1881) 7136, namely, Hindus, 4092; Muhammadans, 2823; Sikhs, 65; Jains, 155; and unspecified, 1. Number of houses, 1619.

Jinjirá.—State and port in Bombay Presidency.—*See* JANJIRA.

Jinjirám.—River in Goálpárá District, Assam; rises in swamps between Agiagrám and Lakhipur, and flows westward nearly parallel to the Brahmaputra, from which also it receives a partial overflow in the rains, till it falls into that river below Manika *char.* Another river is marked in the Survey maps named Jinjirám, but is really called the Jinári. It rises in the Gáro Hills, and flows north into Goálpárá District, emptying itself into the Brahmaputra a few miles above the town of Goálpárá. Both streams are navigable during the rains by boats of 2 tons burthen.

Jírá.—Village in the south of Goálpárá District, Assam, on the left or west bank of the Krishnái river, at the foot of the Gáro Hills. The weekly market is frequented by Gáros, who bring down lac and other products of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, rice, dried fish, etc. Jírá has given its name to a *dwár* or lowland tract in the Gáro Hills, where valuable *sál* timber is found.

Jirál.—Petty State of the Sankhera Mehwas, Gori group, in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. It is divided among three shareholders, who are also the proprietors of Kámsoli Moti and Kámsoli Náni, the total area of the three estates being 5 square miles. The estimated revenue of Jirál in 1881 was £170, of which £7 is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.—*See* KAMSOLI MOTI and KAMSOLI NANI.

Jirang.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam; presided over by a *sardár* named Moit Singh. Population (1881) 720. Natural products—rice, chillies, and caoutchouc. Cotton cloth is woven. Jirang contains some of the finest *sál* forests in the Khási Hills.

Jiri.—River of Assam.—*See* JHIRI.

Jobat.—Petty State under the Bhopáwar or Bhíl Agency, Central India; lying between 22° 24′ and 22° 36′ N. lat., and between 74° 37′ and 74° 51′ E. long. It is one of the offshoots of the Alí-Rájpur State, and consists of a small tract of hilly country, inhabited almost entirely by Bhíls, which was left undisturbed during the turmoil which the Maráthá invasions caused in Málwá. The Vindhya mountains skirt the northern frontier, and spurs from them run into the State. The road from Indore *viá* Dhár, Rájpur (Alí-Rájpur) to Gujarát (Guzerát), passes through the north-west corner of the State. The Ráná of Jobat is a Rahtor Rájput. The area of the State is 132 square

war); on the south by Sirohi and Pálanpur; on the west by the Rann of Cutch (Kachch) and the Thar and Párkar District of Sind; and on the north-west by the Native State of Jáisalmer (Jeysulmere). It lies between lat. 24° 36′ and 27° 42′ N., and between long. 70° 6′ and 75° 24′ E. Its greatest length north-east and south-west is about 290 miles, and its greatest breadth 130 miles. It contains an area of 37,000 square miles, being the largest State in Rájputána. The population (1881) numbers 1,750,403, so that Jodhpur is the second most populous State in Rájputána. The State is the cradle of a long line of chiefs of the Rahtor clan of Rájputs.

Physical Aspects.—The river Lúni is the most marked feature in the physical aspect of Jodhpur. It rises in the lake at Ajmere, and is first known as the Ságar Mati, taking the name of Lúni after its junction at Govindgarh with the Sarsuti (Saraswati), which has its source in the Pushkár Lake. From Govindgarh the river flows in a south-westerly direction through the State, and is finally lost in the marshy ground at the head of the Rann of Cutch. It is fed by numerous tributaries, chiefly from the Aravalli Hills. In heavy floods, which occur very rarely, it overflows its banks in the separate District of Mallánı. The local name of this overflow is *rel*, and fine crops of wheat and barley are grown on the saturated soil. Wells are dug in the bed of the river in all the Districts of Jodhpur through which it flows, and in this way large tracts producing wheat and barley are irrigated. There is a saying in Márwár, that half the produce of the country, so far as cereals are concerned, is dependent on the Lúni. The river is, however, capricious and erratic. On one bank it may be a blessing, on the other a curse. This is seen in two villages in the Gura estate in the Mallání District. One is rich with crops, the other arid and bare; on one side the stream flows over sand, and its water is sweet,—on the other, over a hard bed, and its water is briny. The Lúni attains its greatest breadth in the Sachor and Mallání Districts. Its water is, as a rule, saline or brackish, but that of wells sunk at a distance of 20 or 30 yards from the banks of the river is comparatively sweet, and the inhabitants of all the villages situated in its neighbourhood depend for their drinking supply on these wells. Melons and the *singhára* nut (Trapa bispinosa) are grown in great quantities in the bed of the river during the dry season. The chief tributaries of the Lúni are the Jojri, the Súkri, the Guyabála, the Reria or Páli, the Bándi, and the Jowái. The only important lake is the famous salt lake of SAMBHAR, on the borders of Jodhpur and Jaipur. Two other depressions of the same kind exist, one in the north of Jodhpur at Dídwáná, and the other in the south at Pachpadra. The out-turn of salt from these two latter lakes was, in 1877, 14½ *lakhs* of *maunds* (say 52,000 tons). There are a few *jhíls* or marshes in Jodhpur, notably one in the Sachor

District, which covers an area of 40 or 50 miles in the rainy season, and the bed of which, when dry, yields good crops of wheat and gram.

The geological characteristics of the country are somewhat complex. The south-eastern boundary, viz. that portion of Merwára and the Aravalli range within the frontier of the State, consists principally of metamorphic or transition rocks, rising precipitously from the plains of Jodhpur, and in some localities attaining an elevation of 3000 feet. These rocks are chiefly gneiss, hornblende, quartz, and mica-slate; but in the higher hills bands of basalt and porphyry are found, and occasionally granite, which, more towards the south, becomes the principal feature of the range, as at Abu. Passing from the Aravallis towards the west, the surface, even at the base of the mountain range, is found to be sandy; but the substratum appears to be chiefly gneiss, hornblende, mica-slate, and quartz, all of which may be seen cropping up through the sand, and in some places are from 800 to 1000 feet in height. The aspect of the country, therefore, as far as the Lúni river, which divides Jodhpur into two unequal parts, is that of a sandy plain, dotted with bold and picturesque conical hills or *mers*, rising to the elevation above mentioned. The most prominent of these formations are—the Nádolai Hill, on which a colossal stone elephant has been placed; the Punnagír Hill, near Jadhan; the Sojat Hill; the Hill near Pali; the Hill near Gundoj; the Sanderao Hill; and the Jálor Hill. Immediately around these hills the ground is hard and stony, but gradually passes into sand, which becomes more heavy as the eastern and northern districts are approached. After crossing the Lúni, or at about one-third of the breadth of the State, these conical hills are less numerous, and sandstone appears, but the metamorphic rocks are not lost sight of until the range is passed on which the capital, JODHPUR, is situated.

The country to the north of Jodhpur city is one vast sandy plain, called the *thal*, only broken by sandhills or *tebas*, which, commencing in the State of Jodhpur, stretch into Bíkaner in the north, and into Jaisalmer and Sind in the west and south. In the Malláni District these sandhills rise in places to a height of 300 or 400 feet, and this part of the country resembles an undulating sea of sand. Throughout the *thal*, an occasional oasis is met with; but water is exceedingly scarce, and often from 200 to 300 feet below the surface. It is conjectured that the substratum of this part of the country is sandstone, as that is passed through in sinking the deep wells, but no special investigations have been made. Zinc used to be obtained in large quantities near Sojat. The country is rich in salt, which is obtained in large quantities, chiefly from the natural salt lake of SAMBHAR. At Pachpadra, 35 miles south-west of Jodhpur, and at Dídwáná, Phalodi, and Pokáran, salt is crystallized from the water of wells. The salt *jhíls* of Sargot

and Kachawan possess unknown capabilities for salt manufacture. But in addition to these salt sources, there are in the State 72 salt-producing villages, with 370 working factories. The method of obtaining the salt is extremely simple. At Pachpadra, for instance, the process is as follows:—Oblong pits of various sizes are dug: a supply of brine percolates through the pit bed, and when that has become sufficiently concentrated so as to show signs of crystallization around the pit edge, branches of a thorny shrub called *morali* are sunk in it. On these branches salt crystals form and continue to grow for two or sometimes three years. At the end of that period the salt crop is extracted, usually in this way: men enter the pit, and with an iron chisel, wedge-shaped, and having a handle five feet long, they cut through the thorny branches, and break up the salt which is caked on the bottom. The branches, with the crystals attached, are carried to the edge of the pit, and the crystals are shaken or broken off. The salt thus broken up is drawn to the sides by a broad iron hoe, and is removed in baskets to the top of the pit. Marble exists in abundance at Makráná in the north, and also in smaller masses near Ghánirão on the south-east border. *Multáni matti* or fuller's earth is found in considerable quantities at Kapuri; it is used by natives of all castes for washing the hair. This earth is taken for sale to Umarkot in Sind, to Jodhpur, and Bíkaner. It sells on the spot at about 2 annas (3d.) a bullock-load.

Population.—The population of Jodhpur State consists of Rájputs, the conquerors and lords of the soil; Charans, Bháts, Játs, Bishnáwis, Minas, and Bhíls, the aboriginal inhabitants; and the usual mixed Hindu population, with a scanty proportion of Muhammadans. The Charans, a sacred race, hold large religious grants of land, and enjoy peculiar immunities as traders in local produce. The Bháts are by profession genealogists, but also engage in trade. The Minas, Bauris, and Bhíls are predatory classes, but are employed in menial capacities. The Muhammadans are principally soldiers, the word *sipáhi* (sepoy) being used generally to designate a Muhammadan. The natives, as a race, are enterprising and industrious, but the agricultural classes have to undergo great privations from poor food, and often bad water. Márwári traders are to be found throughout the peninsula, especially in the Deccan. Although far from his native State, the Márwári trader or money-lender remains loyal to the Jodhpur chief. When the late Mahárájá Takht Singh died, every Márwári in Calcutta and Bombay shaved his head and face as a mark of mourning. The peaked turban is a peculiarity of the Márwári head-dress. In pursuit of trade, the Márwáris quit their homes for years, only revisiting them on occasions of marriages or family concerns.

Until 1881, no census of the population had been taken; an

enumeration in that year gave the following results. The area of the State was 37,000 square miles. Population, 1,750,403; number of towns and villages, 3785; number of houses, 386,707. Density of population, 47·31 persons per square mile; houses per square mile, 10·45; persons per house, 4·53. There are ten villages on an average to every hundred miles of country. The religious division of the people shows — Hindus, 1,421,891; Muhammadans, 155,802; Jains, 172,404; Christians, 207; and 'others,' 99.

In the sandy portion of Jodhpur, and throughout Mallání, the houses are mostly beehive-shaped huts, with the exception of the Thákur's residence, which in small villages is generally of mud, with a thatch roof. The villages are enclosed with a strong fence to keep out wild animals and thieves. The middle classes dwell in houses constructed of mud, with thatch roofs; those of the *mahájans* (traders) are frequently of stone and mortar, whilst in some villages the Thákur's house is a handsome well-constructed residence. The lower classes are generally temperate, laborious, and economical; their dress is of the most simple kind; as a rule, they partake of two meals a day, consisting of bread, dried vegetables, and curds and milk. Their houses usually contain nothing but a few cooking utensils and sleeping cots; carpets and rugs are rarely used, the people sitting on the bare ground. The majority of the cultivators are Játs, Sirwis, Bishnáwis, Pitáls, Rájputs, and Muhammadans of the country, such as Káim Khánis, who enjoy grants of land.

Agriculture.—The principal rain crops are pulses and millets—*bájra*, *joár*, and *moth*. In the fertile portion of the State enclosed within the branches of the Lúni, wheat and barley are produced in considerable quantities. The most fertile districts of Jodhpur are Godwár, Sojat, Jetáran, and Mároth. In these districts wells abound, and spring and autumn crops are grown. Cotton is occasionally seen near wells, but the staple is poor. Opium is cultivated in the south-east portion of the State, in the vicinity of the Aravalli range of hills, where the water is sweet and the soil rich. Tobacco and sugar-cane are also grown, but not extensively.

The soils of Jodhpur have been classified under the following heads:—*Báikal*, the most prevalent, is a light sand, having little or no earthy admixture, and only fit for the production of *bájra*, *moth*, *til* (sesamum), water-melons, and other cucurbitaceous plants; *chikna*, a clayey fat black earth, producing chiefly wheat; *píla*, a yellow sandy clay adapted for barley, tobacco, onions, and vegetables; *safedi* (white), a soil of siliceous nature, only productive after heavy rains; *khari*, alkaline earth, poisonous to all vegetation. In the sandy parts of the State, the rain sinks into the soil, and does not flow off the surface, so that a very small rainfall suffices for the crops. When the

rainy season commences, the sandhills are ploughed by camels, and the seed planted very deep in the ground. After it has sprouted, a few showers at long intervals bring it to maturity; and as the light-built desert camels are quick movers, each householder is able to put a large extent of ground under crop. The produce in a favourable season is more than sufficient for the wants of the population, but, unfortunately, the means of storing grain are difficult to be got, as burnt earthen vessels for the purpose have to be brought from long distances. The surplus produce is therefore frequently left on the ground as fodder for the cattle. Irrigation works are rare; but care is taken to make the best use of the scanty rainfall by embanking the fields, so that the water is retained for two or three months, until the soil becomes sufficiently saturated to produce crops of wheat. Irrigation is also carried on by Persian wheels and ordinary wells where the water is not more than 75 feet in depth; beyond that depth, well irrigation is not remunerative. No uniform system of assessment of land revenue exists in Márwár; it varies in different localities, but one-third of the actual produce is the prevailing rate. In Nagar, the land yields a single luxuriant rain crop, of which the extreme share of one-half falls to the landlord. In the *thal*, or sandy portions of the State, where labour is scarce, and the ground yields poor and uncertain returns, the landlord's share sometimes falls as low as one-fourteenth.

The manufactures of Jodhpur are of no great importance in a commercial point of view. Turbans and scarves, and embroidered silk knotted thread for wearing on the turban, are specialities of the country. Leather boxes for holding clothes and brass utensils are also manufactured. Snuff is made in Jodhpur city. The principal exports of the State are salt, cattle, sheep, goats, horses, cotton, wool, dyed cloth, hides, and pomegranates. From Makráná, marble and marble manufactures are exported, and stone from various quarries. Stone flour-mills are constructed at Barmer in Mallání, and exported in large numbers. The chief imports are *gúr* and *kand* (coarse and refined sugar), and rice from Bhiwáni in Hissar, opium from Kotah, Udaipur (Oodeypore), and Beáwar. From Bombay come English piece-goods, silver and copper; from Gujarát, spices of every kind, dates, gum-arabic, borax, cocoa-nuts, silk, sandal-wood, and dyes. Corn is imported from Sind and Bhiwáni. Trade is carried on chiefly by permanent markets at Jodhpur city, Páli, Merta, Parbatsar, Nagar, Didwáná, Pachpadra, Phalodi, Jalor, Pipar, and Balotra, the chief towns. In ordinary years, the local crops suffice for local wants, but the local manufactures do not.

Medical Aspects.—The prevailing diseases are malarious or paroxysmal fevers, especially in the autumnal season, when the extremes of temperature are first experienced. Skin affections are also very

prevalent, probably caused by the bad water and indifferent food of the lower classes, and partly by their dirty habits, the latter being in some degree the result of a scarcity of water for household use. The food of the people, consisting chiefly of *bájra* (Holcus spicatus), is also instrumental in the production of dyspeptic complaints, which would be even more prevalent, were it not for the abundance and cheapness of salt throughout the country. Guinea-worm and mycetoma or Madura-foot are also diseases of the soil. Of epidemic maladies, small-pox occurs periodically with some violence. Cholera, however, comparatively seldom presents itself, and still more rarely penetrates the semi-desert districts to the west of the city of Jodhpur.

History. — The present ruling chief of Jodhpur is His Highness the Mahárájá Jaswant Singh, who holds that position as chief of the Rahtor clan of Rájputs, to whom the territory belongs. The princes of Jodhpur, like their rivals of Udaipur (Oodeypore), term themselves Surya Vansa, or the 'Solar Race,' and claim descent from Ráma. The founder of the dynasty migrated from Kanauj; and the Rahtor race, from its warlike and aggressive propensities, became the most powerful clan of the Rájputs. Several independent States were founded by offshoots from it, among which are the present States of Bíkaner (Bickaneer) and Kishengarh in Rájputána, and Edar and Ahmednagar in Gujarát. It is probable that the Játs, the Mínas, and the Bhíls originally held the country of Márwár in separate petty chiefships before the Rahtor conquest. The local historians relate that subsequently to the fall of the Rahtor dynasty of Kanauj in 1194 A.D., Sivají, the grandson of Jai Chánd, the last king of Kanauj, entered Márwár on a pilgrimage to Dwarka, and, halting at the town of Páli, he and his followers displayed their valour by repelling large bands of marauders. At the entreaty of the Bráhman community of the place, who were greatly harassed by constant raids of plundering bands, Sivají agreed to settle among them and become their protector. The Rahtor chief, acquiring land and power around Páli, gained there the first footing in the future kingdom. His son and successor, Asthan, extended the domain by conquering the land of Kher from the Gohel Rájputs, and established his brother Soning in Edar, then a small principality on the frontier of Gujarát. It was not, however, till the time of Ráo Chánda, the tenth in succession from Sivají, that Mandor, then the capital of Márwár, was acquired by the Rahtors. From the time of Chánda, about 1382, the actual conquest of Márwár by the Rahtors may be dated. Chánda was succeeded by Ráo Rir Mall, a famous warrior. His son Jodha ruled after him, and founded the city of Jodhpur, which he made his capital. In 1528, the Rahtors fought under the standard of Udáipur (Oodeypore) against the Mughal Emperor Bábar, on the field of Khanua. In 1544, the Afghán Sher Sháh led an army of 80,000 men into

Márwár, and obtained victory, but only after a narrow escape from defeat.

In 1561, the Emperor Akbar invaded the country, and eventually the chief of Jodhpur succumbed to necessity, and, as was the custom of the time, sent his son as a mark of homage to take service under the Mughal Emperor. When this son, Udai Singh, succeeded to the chiefship, he gave his sister Jodhbái in marriage to Akbar, and was rewarded by the restoration of the former possessions of his house in Márwár, with the exception of Ajmere; and several rich districts in Málwá were added. The son of Udai Singh, Rájá Sur Singh, attained to high honour with Akbar, for whom he conquered Gujarát and the Deccan. On the occasion of the contests among the four sons of Sháh Jahán, Jaswant Singh, successor to Rájá Sur, was appointed to the command of the army sent against Aurangzeb. He was, however, defeated; and though he made peace with Aurangzeb afterwards, he was never forgiven. Aurangzeb, to get rid of him, appointed him to lead an army against the Afgháns. Jaswant Singh died beyond the Indus, leaving a posthumous son, Ajit Singh. During the infancy of the latter, Aurangzeb invaded Márwár, plundered Jodhpur, sacked all the large towns, and commanded the conversion of the Rahtor race to Muhammadanism. This cemented into a bond of union all who cherished either patriotism or religion; and the Rájputs, making common cause, held their own against the Muhammadan power. Ajit Singh was a party to the triple alliance with Udaipur and Jaipur to throw off the Muhammadan yoke. One of the conditions of this alliance was, that the chiefs of Jaipur and Jodhpur should regain the privilege of marriage with the Udaipur family, which they had forfeited by contracting alliances with the Mughal Emperors, on the understanding that the offspring of the princesses of Udaipur should succeed to the State in preference to all other children. Ajit Singh was murdered by his son Bakht Singh; but the quarrels arising from the stipulation in the above treaty lasted through generations, and led to the invitation of the help of Maráthá leaders by the aspirants to power in support of their claims, and finally to the subjection of all the Rájput States to the Maráthá court of Poona.

Jodhpur was conquered by Sindhia, who levied a tribute of 6 *lákhs* of rupees (£60,000), and took from it the fort and city of Ajmere. At the commencement of the Maráthá war of 1803, Mán Singh had just been elected by the nobles to be chief of Jodhpur, after a long struggle with his cousin Bhim Singh. The alliance of the British Government was offered to him, and a treaty drawn up, but not ratified; and Mán Singh, having meanwhile given assistance to Holkar, the treaty was formally cancelled in 1804, and Mán Singh left to his own resources. Thereafter, troubles came quickly upon Jodhpur, owing

to internal disputes regarding the succession of Dhokal Singh, a reputed son of Bhim Singh, and a disastrous war with Jaipur for the hand of the daughter of the Rána of Udaipur. The aid of the great Pindárí freebooter, Amír Khán, was called in first by the Jaipur and afterwards by the Jodhpur Rájá. Amír Khán thus became the arbiter of affairs in Márwár; and after terrifying the Mahárájá into abdication and pretended insanity, ended by plundering the treasury and leaving the country with its resources completely exhausted. Chhatar Singh, the only son of the Mahárájá, assumed the regency on the withdrawal of Amír Khán in 1817. With him the British Government commenced negotiations at the outbreak of the Pindárí war; and a treaty was concluded in January 1818, by which Jodhpur was taken under the protection of the British Government, the tribute payable to Sindhia was transferred to the British, and the Rájá engaged to furnish a contingent of 1500 horse when required, and the whole forces of the State when necessary. Chhatar Singh died shortly after the conclusion of the treaty, whereupon his father threw off the mask of insanity, and resumed the administration. In 1824, 21 villages in Merwárá were made over temporarily to the British Government, with a view of bringing the lawless Mínas and Mers into submission. The lease expired in 1843, but the Rájá expressed his readiness to leave the villages under British administration. No definite arrangement was made, and the tract is still being administered on this footing. The desert tract of Mallání has also been under the superintendence of the Political Agent since 1836. It belongs to Jodhpur; but the feudatories acknowledge the Rájá's supremacy merely by paying an annual tribute of £688, which is collected by the Political Agent, and paid over to the Jodhpur Government.

The misgovernment of Mán Singh, and the consequent disaffection and insurrection in the State, reached such a pitch that in 1839 the British Government was compelled to interfere. A force was marched to Jodhpur, of which it held military occupation for five months, and Mán Singh executed an engagement to ensure future good government. Four years after this, Mán Singh died, without sons of his body, and without adopting an heir. The succession lay between the chiefs of Edar and Ahmednagar, the chief of Edar being the nearest of kin (*see* EDAR). It was left to the widows, the nobles, and the State officials interested to select the future ruler. Their choice fell upon Takht Singh, chief of Ahmednagar, a direct descendant of Rájá Ajít Singh, whom with his son Jaswant Singh they invited to Jodhpur. Owing to constant disputes between the Darbár (official administration) and the Thákurs (feudatory chiefs), the affairs of Jodhpur remained in an unsatisfactory state during the administration of Rájá Takht Singh, but he was loyal to the British Government, and did good service during the Mutiny.

He died in February 1873, and was succeeded by his son Mahárájá Jaswant Singh, the present ruler, who was born about 1837. He has received the right of adoption, and has been created a G.C.S.I.

The constitution of Jodhpur has been hitherto generally spoken of as feudal, but it may be more accurately described as a tribal suzerainty rapidly passing into the feudal stage. The institutions of the State are highly favourable to general peace and the protection of personal property, provided that the tribal chiefs live in harmony with their suzerain, and with one another, for there is a chain of authority running from the ruler to the possessor of a circle of 100 villages and of 1 village. The rights of all classes of the agricultural community are well defined, and thoroughly respected, except in periods of anarchy and misrule. Not only is the village community in its full sense intact in Jodhpur, but there is also a community of villages and of interdependent relations between them and their inhabitants. The *pattáit* or tribal chief of any magnitude is the ruler of his estate, and the judge almost exclusively in all matters of civil and criminal jurisdiction over his people. The Thákurs of Jodhpur owe military service to their suzerain, and exact the same from their brethren to whom assignments of land have been made, and who form their following,—the whole constituting the following of the suzerain himself. The fiscal lands are managed by *hákims* or sub-divisional governors; but these hardly amount to one-fifth of the area in the possession of the Thákurs and *jágírdárs*. The right of Government to a certain money rate or share of the produce is well understood, and the agricultural classes everywhere live in comparative security.

There are various kinds of tenure in the State. Most tenures are ancestral and hereditary, having been obtained at different times by the relatives of the reigning family. The holders of these tenures pay military cess and succession tax. The Thákurs of the separate district of Mallání pay tribute only, but although nearly independent, cherish extreme loyalty to the head of the State. The *rekh*, or military cess, is believed to be about 8 per cent. of the gross rental of the *thákurate*, or estate. Village tenures are numerous, the principal being known as *bápi* (= fatherland), *mangli*, *hásili*, *sásan*, *pasaita*, *jágiri*, and *bhúm*. *Bápi* tenures are those granted in consideration of improvements effected by the tenants; *mangli* are *bápi* lands held by Bráhmans; *hásili* are lands ordinarily assessed by the State or a *jágírdár*; *sásan* lands are those granted for religious purposes; *pasaita* are lands given rent free by the *jágírdár*, and are resumable at will; *jágíri* lands are the untaxed lands of the *jágírdárs*; and *bhúm* lands are lands granted for State service, or upon reclamation by private enterprise. *Bhúm* lands are tax free, hereditary, and only resumable by the State for treason or serious crime.

Administration.—At Jodhpur city there are civil and criminal courts presided over by separate officials. The Mahárájá alone has power of life and death, and final appeals lie to him in all but petty cases. Most of the district cases are disposed of by the *hákims*. The Thákurs within their estates assume independent magisterial authority; and until lately, it was only the lower feudatories who would surrender criminals or brook interference in criminal cases. Arbitration is generally resorted to in all civil disputes. The ceremonies of the Court are intricate and curious. The highest honour the Mahárájá bestows on a visitor is to receive and dismiss him standing, and raise his right hand a little in salutation on his arrival and departure; to the next in rank the Mahárájá rises both on arrival and departure; there is a third grade of visitors, on the arrival (not departure) of whom the Mahárájá rises. All the aristocracy of Jodhpur precede the Mahárájá in processions; if the chief stops to address any one, it is a token of particular honour. The great drum beats four times every night in the fort at Jodhpur, and it is a special sign of respect for a deceased Thákur to omit one of the beats. On the death of a considerable Thákur the Mahárájá pays a visit of condolence at the home of the Thákur's family.

There is one large newly-constructed jail at Jodhpur city, to which, as a rule, all prisoners sentenced to more than three months' imprisonment are sent. At the head-quarters of each district there is a lock-up. Police duties are generally conducted by the army, no separate establishment existing. There are three dispensaries in the city of Jodhpur, besides one at the town of Páli, one at Nagar, and one at Jásol in Mallání. The Mahárájá is very liberal in responding to any call for these charitable institutions. Education in an advanced form is unknown in Jodhpur. A large proportion of the population can read and write Hindí; amongst whom are included most of the ladies of good birth, a condition of things almost peculiar to this State. The capital now possesses two good schools, one for the sons of Thákurs and the higher classes, the other for the children of trades-people and the lower classes. At both these schools, English is taught, as well as the vernacular languages. There are also schools supported by the State in some of the towns, and every large village possesses one, presided over by the local Jain priest. The language spoken in Jodhpur is a peculiar patois called Márwárí, considered to have an affinity to Hindí.

There is one metalled road, 100 miles in length, running through Jodhpur; it is the main route from Ajmere to Ahmadábád in Bombay. The Rájputána-Málwá State Railway, on the metre gauge, from Ajmere, connecting with the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway at Ahmadábád, skirts the south-eastern border of Jodhpur. This railway also touches the territory by the small northern branch line to the

Sambhar Salt Lake, which is on the boundaries of Jodhpur and Jaipur. From Karchi station (now called Jodhpur Junction, 87 miles south-west of Ajmere) of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway, a short line of 64½ miles is under construction, at the expense of the State, to the town of Jodhpur, of which 43½ miles were open in 1884. Fairs are held in March, at Tilwárá. lasting 15 days; at Mundwa in December, when from 30,000 to 40,000 people assemble; at Parbatsar in August, attended chiefly by Játs, who come to trade in bullocks; and at Bilára and Barkhána.

The revenue of the State is mainly derived from the land, salt, and custom dues, a cess imposed on the feudatory nobles, succession dues, etc. The total receipts may be calculated at about 40 *lákhs* of rupees (say £400,000). The numerous nobles of Márwár enjoy very large incomes, and there are also a great number of religious and other free grants, which amount probably altogether to more than double the revenue receipts

In the treaty of 1818, it was stipulated that the tribute hitherto paid to Sindhia by the Jodhpur State should be paid in perpetuity to the British Government. This tribute amounted to Rs. 108,000 (£10,800), but has been reduced to Rs. 98,000 (say £9800), Rs. 10,000 (£1000) having been remitted as compensation for the fort of Umarkot in Sind. In the same treaty, it was agreed that the Jodhpur State should furnish a contingent of 15,000 horse when required. In 1832, a demand was made for a force to co-operate against freebooters who occupied Nagar Párkar. The contingent failed in its duty, and proved utterly useless. In 1835, therefore, the obligation to furnish the force was commuted to an annual payment of £11,500 towards the Jodhpur Legion which was then raised. This Legion mutinied in 1857. Its place is now supplied by the Erinpura Irregular Force. The military establishment of the State, in addition to the Erinpura Force, consists of 55 field and 125 other guns, more than half being unserviceable, 320 gunners, 3499 cavalry, and 5954 infantry.

Climate.—The climate of Jodhpur at all seasons may be described as dry. This dryness is due to the geographical position of the State, the geological nature of the surface, and the absence of forest. The Aravalli range separates the State from the more fertile districts of Udaipur. The country is therefore beyond the range of the full force of the south-west monsoon from the Indian Ocean, and entirely removed from the influence of the south-east monsoon from the Bay of Bengal. Also the clouds from the south-west, before arriving at Jodhpur, must float above extensive arid Districts, as the sandy tracts of Northern Gujarát, Cutch, the Rann, and the desert Districts of Umárkot and Párkar. This results in a very small rainfall, which at the centre of the country, *i.e.* the city of Jodhpur, does not often

exceed the average of 14 inches. In 1881 the rainfall was unusually heavy, gauging over 22 inches at Jodhpur city. The Lúni contains only scanty pools of water, and its tributaries are dry during the greater part of the year. The sandy soil, the brackish water nearly everywhere found, and the prevalence of the saline efflorescence known as *reh*, are the principal reasons why there is so little of either wild jungle growth or of cultivated ground. Thus all conditions unite in producing that extraordinary dryness characteristic of Márwár. The next most striking peculiarity of the climate is the extreme variation of temperature which occurs in the cold season between the night and the day. This depends in a great degree on the dryness of the atmosphere, the heat given off by the earth at night passing freely through dry air, whereas it is absorbed and retained by the damp of a moist atmosphere. Thus it happens that on the sandy soil of Jodhpur, while the nights may be sufficiently cold for ice to form, the days are often marked by a temperature of 90° F. in the shade of a tent. Similarly, although hot winds prevail with great violence in the months of April, May, and June, the nights are fairly cool.

Jodhpur.—Capital of the Native State of Jodhpur or Márwár, Rájputána. Lat. 26° 17′ N., long. 73° 4′ E. It was built by Ráo Jodha in 1459 A.D., and from that time has been the seat of Government of the principality. It is placed in the southern slope of a small range of hills running east and west, the prevailing geological formation of which is red sandstone. The fort commanding the city is built on a sandstone rock rising to the height of 800 feet, having to the north cones of porphyry and masses of trap of various descriptions placed in juxtaposition to the sandstone. The layers of this sandstone are usually parallel with the horizon, and they generally rise abruptly out of the sand below, but are sometimes visibly supported by trap or metamorphic rock. In some places, porphyritic trap is ranged in stairs, and has apparently been thrown up at a later date than the sandstone, without having materially damaged the stratification of the latter. The city is surrounded by a strong wall nearly 6 miles in extent, and there are seventy gates, each bearing the name of the place to which it leads. The fort stands on an isolated rock, the highest point of the range, and contains the Mahárájá's palace, a large and handsome building, completely covering the crest of the hill on which it stands, and overlooking the city, which lies several hundred feet below. The city contains many handsome buildings—palaces of the Mahárájá, and town residences of the Thákurs or nobles, besides numerous fine temples and tanks. Building stone is plentiful, and close at hand, and the architecture solid and handsome. Three miles north from Jodhpur are the ruins of Mandor, interesting from having been the site of the ancient capital of the Purihar Princes of Márwár, prior to its

conquest by the Rahtors. Mandor contains the cenotaphs of the ruling chiefs of the country, erected on the spot where the funeral pyre consumed the remains of those who in former days were seldom burned alone. There are also stone effigies of gallant chieftains of Márwár, curious as specimens of rude carving by workmen of the country. No statistics of population, etc. have been supplied by the State authorities for the town of Jodhpur.

Jogeshwari.—Name of a celebrated cave in Amboli village, Sálsette island, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The cave is 2½ miles south-east of Gurgáon station, on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. It forms a temple of Brahma, and next to the Kailás at Ellora is the largest known cave in India. Its length is 240 and breadth 200 feet. This cave temple contains rock-cut passages, an immense central hall supported by pillars, porticoes, and subsidiary courts. The temple dates from the eighth century.

Jogigarh.—Fort in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; situated on a small island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river. Lat. 22° 25′ N., long. 76° 51′ E. A rapid at this point renders navigation impracticable except during the rains, when a passage can be effected by small boats.

Jogi-ghopá.—Village in Goálpárá District, Assam; on the right or north bank of the Brahmaputra, a few miles below the town of Goálpárá. In old days, before the conquest of Assam by the British, it possessed considerable importance as a centre of frontier trade. It contains the temple of Dudhnáth, sacred to Siva, which is frequented by Hindu pilgrims from distant parts of India; and in the neighbourhood are many artificial caverns, cut in the rocky face of the hills, which are believed to have been occupied in former times by religious devotees. Jogi-ghopá was at one time the head-quarters of Goálpárá District. The Bijni Rájá has built a handsome residence here, and the place promises to increase in importance.

Jogi-maradi.—Highest peak in a broken mountain range that crosses Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State; 3803 feet above sea-level.

Jollárpet (*Jolárampetti, Jalárapét*).—Town in Tirupatúr *táluk*, Salem District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 34′ N., long. 78° 38′ E.; 1320 feet above sea-level. Contains 142 houses, with (1881) 694 inhabitants, of whom one-half are Pariahs. A *zamindári* village, important only as a first-class station of the Madras Railway, south-west line, and junction for Bangalore. Five miles from Tirupatúr, the head-quarters of the *táluk*.

Jomá-male.—Mountain in Coorg.—*See* SOMA-MALE.

Jorhát.—Sub-division of Sibságar District, Assam; formed in 1869. Population (1881) 143,985, distributed among 24 *mauzás* or unions of

villages. Total revenue in 1881-82, £23,821. The sub-divisional police force consists of 39 men stationed at the three *thánás* of Jorhát, Kamalábári, and Salang, and an outpost of frontier police at Debrápár. The superior administrative staff usually includes an Assistant and an extra-Assistant Commissioner. The tea-gardens numbered 95 in 1881.

Jorhát.—Village in Sibságar District, Assam, and head-quarters of the Jorhát Sub-division; lying in lat. 26° 46′ N., and long. 94° 16′ E., on the eft or west bank of the Disoi river, about 12 miles south of Kokilámukh on the Brahmaputra. Population (1881) 1984. Situated amid valuable tea-gardens, and at the centre of a system of roads, Jorhát has become the most important mart in the District, though the Disoi can scarcely be called a navigable river. In 1865, out of a total of 160 shops in the *bázár*, 28 were occupied by Márwárí or Jain traders from the north-west, who import cotton goods, salt, and hardware from Bengal, in return for which they export silk, cotton, mustard seed, and jungle products. A few shops are kept by native Muhammadans, who chiefly sell 'Europe' goods and furniture; the remainder are petty stalls for retailing rice, oil, and vegetables. Many of the tea-gardens consign their produce by river steamer direct to England. The Jorhát Tea Company is chiefly owned by shareholders in that country. The public buildings include a lock-up, a charitable dispensary, and a Government High School, which teaches as far as the University entrance examination. There is also an artisans' school, supported out of a bequest from a European tea-planter of the District. Jorhát was erected into a municipal union in October 1881. At the close of the last century, the place was at various times the residence of Rájá Gaurináth, the last of the independent kings of the Aham dynasty.

Joriya.—See JODHIA.

Joshimath.—Village in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 30° 33′ 25″ N., and long. 79° 36′ 35″ E., at the confluence of the Alaknandá and the Dhaulí. Chiefly remarkable as the winter residence of the Ráwal, or priest of the temple of BADRINATH, who retires hither after the snows have rendered the higher shrine inaccessible. The village contains several ancient temples. Elevation above sea-level, 6200 feet.

Jotdár.—Channel of the DEVI, or branch of the Mahánadi estuary, in the south-east of Cuttack District, Bengal. Enters the sea in lat. 20° 11′ N., and long. 86° 34′ E.

Joura.—State in Central India Agency.—*See* JAORA.

Jowái.—Village and administrative head-quarters of the Jaintia Hills Sub-division, Khási Hills District, Assam; 4422 feet above sea-level. Population (1881) 3229. Jowái is the residence of the Assistant Deputy Commissioner; and, as the centre of a system of hill roads, it

possesses a considerable trade. The chief exports are raw cotton and caoutchouc; the imports—rice, dried fish, cotton goods, and salt. The average annual rainfall for the five years ending December 1881 was 362·63 inches. Jowái was the centre of the Jaintia rebellion in 1862.

Juángs, The.—One of the most primitive tribes of the ORISSA TRIBUTARY STATES (*q.v.*). Their principal habitat is in KEUNJHAR STATE, where they numbered 4592 in 1872, and DHENKANAL STATE, where they numbered 4120. There were also 367 of this tribe returned in PAL LAHARA STATE in 1872, with 290 in HINDOL, and 290 in BANKI. Total, 9398 within the Tributary States in 1872. Owing to changes in classification, the Census of 1881 fails to disclose the number of this tribe, and includes the Juángs among the Hindu low-castes. Colonel Dalton was informed that there were 32 settlements of the Juáng tribe in Keunjhar, occupying the hill country southward from Keunjhar fort to Handah; between 21° 20′ and 21° 40′ N. lat., and between 85° 30′ and 85° 45′ E. long.

In this tract, as in their other settlements, the Juáng hamlets are mingled with Bhuiyá and Goálá villages. The following description is slightly condensed from Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal* (pp. 152–158, Government Press, Calcutta 1872). The Juángs appear to have been driven back by the Bhuiyás from the fertile valleys, and their cultivation is now chiefly found upon the hill-sides. They have no traditions which affiliate them with any other race; and notwithstanding a similarity in their languages, they repudiate all connection with Hos or Santáls. They aver very positively that they are autochthones in Keunjhar, the direct descendants of the first human beings that appeared or were produced in that country, or indeed in the world. For they assert a claim to be the first produced of the human race, though they make no pretensions to be the fathers of mankind. The head-quarters of the tribe, or cradle of the race, they consider to have been at Gonásiká, in 21° 30′ N. lat., and 85° 37′ E. long, where a stream which is the source of the Baitaraní issues from two holes in a rock, supposed to bear a resemblance to the nostrils of a cow. They assert that the Baitaraní, on whose banks they were created, is older than the Ganges; and that the present Juáng inhabitants of the village of Gonásiká, and other villages in the vicinity, occupy the very soil from which the parents of their race were produced. They have no traditions to record, except that very long ago nine hundred Juángs left the country of their birth and moved to Dhenkánal, and that then the Bhuiyás came and took up the land of the brethren who had left them; but it is more probable that they were driven out by the Bhuiyás, who are now the dominant race in those hills. The Bhuiyás, however, deny this, asserting that they are the true autochthones, and that the Juángs are interlopers. There is a tradition of a Borá Rájá (probably some allusion to

Food.—They declare that they subsist every year more on wild roots and fruits than on what they rear, but it is doubtful if they are so badly off as they pretend to be. The area of their cultivation appears proportionate to their numbers. They pay no rent, being under an obligation to render personal service to the Rájá, by repairing his house and carrying his burdens when required. They are addicted to ardent spirits, which they are obliged to buy, as they have not acquired the art of distilling, or even of brewing rice beer. In regard to food, they are not in the least particular, eating all kinds of flesh, including mice, rats, monkeys, tigers, bears, snakes, frogs, and even offal. The jungles abound in spontaneously-produced vegetables. In quest of such food, the Juángs possess all the instinct of animals, discerning at a glance what is nutritive, and never mistaking a noxious for an edible fungus or root. Their favourite weapon is the primitive sling made of cord, with rough unfashioned stones or pebbles for missiles. They also use the bow and arrow.

Dress.—Until recently, the only clothing of the Juángs, particularly among the females, consisted of a few strings of beads, with a bunch of leaves before and behind. The Juángs take young shoots of the *ásán* (Terminalia tomentosa) or any tree with long, soft leaves, and arrange them so as to form a flat and scale-like surface of the required size; the sprigs are simply stuck in the girdle, and the costume is complete. The beads that form the girdle are small tubes of burnt earthenware made by the wearers. The women wear also a profusion of necklaces of glass beads, and of brass ornaments in their ears and on their wrists. The males were first induced to adopt a scanty cotton loin cloth for purposes of decency, but the women were long deterred by superstition from following their example. Several traditions exist to account for this, the simplest of which is connected with the origin of the Baitaraní. The river goddess, emerging for the first time from the Gonásiká rock, came suddenly on a merry party of Juáng females dancing naked; and ordering them to adopt a garment of leaves, laid on them the curse that they must adhere to the costume for ever or die. Some years ago, the British officer in charge of the *khedá* operations in Keunjhar induced a number of Juáng females to clothe themselves, he supplying the first robes. The Juángs under British influence have now been clothed by order of Government; and their native chiefs in the Tributary States have been persuaded to do the same work for others. In 1871, the English officer called together the clan, and after a speech, handed out strips of cotton for the women to put on. They then passed in single file, to the number of 1900 before him, made obeisance, and were afterwards marked on the forehead with vermilion, as a sign of their entering into civilized society. Finally, they gathered the bunches of leaves which had formed their sole clothing into a great

heap and solemnly set fire to it. It is reported, however, that a number of the Juáng women, their original garments wearing out, and finding that they were not to be renewed gratuitously, have again lapsed into their primitive leafy attire.

The predominating physical characteristics of the Juángs are—great lateral projection of the cheek bones, or zygomatic arches and general flatness of features; forehead upright, but narrow and low, and projecting over a very depressed nasal bone; nose of the pug species; alæ spreading; mouth large, and lips very thick, but upper jaw rarely prognathous, though the lower jaw and chin are receding; hair coarse and frizzly; prevailing colour of a reddish brown. Some of them have oblique eyes of the Indo-Chinese type, but in this feature there is considerable variety. It is noticeable that the Juáng women tattoo their faces with the same marks that are used by the Mundás, Kharriás, and Uráons: namely, three strokes on the forehead just over the nose, and three on each of the temples. They attach no meanings to the marks, have no ceremony in adopting them, and are ignorant of their origin.

The Juángs are a small race, like the Uráons, the males averaging less than five feet in height, the women not more than four feet eight inches.

Religion.—The Juángs appear to be free from the belief in witchcraft, which is the bane of the Kols, and perniciously influences nearly all other classes in the Jungle Mahals and Tributary States. They have not, like the Kharriás, the reputation of being deeply skilled in sorcery. Their language has no words for 'God,' for 'heaven' or 'hell;' and, so far as can be learned, they have no idea of a future state. They offer fowls to the sun when in distress, and to the earth to give them its fruits in due season. On these occasions an old man officiates as priest; he is called Nagám. The even tenor of their lives is unbroken by any obligatory religious ceremonies.

Marriages and Funeral Ceremonies.—Marriage is recognised, but is brought about in the simplest manner. If a young man fancies a girl, he sends a party of his friends to propose for her; and if the offer is accepted, a day is fixed, and a load of rice in husk is presented on his behalf. The bridegroom does not go himself to the bride's house; his friends go, and return with her and her friends. Then they make merry, eating and dancing, and all stay and make a night of it. In the morning, the bridegroom dismisses the bride's friends with a present of three measures of husked and three of unhusked rice; and this is a full and sufficient solemnization. A man may have more wives than one if he can afford it, but no Juáng has ever ventured on more than two at a time. They are divided into tribes, and are exogamous. They burn their dead, and throw the ashes into any running stream; their mourning is an abstinence for three days from flesh and salt. They erect no monuments, and have no notion of the worship of ancestors.

Júbá.—Deserted fortress in Sargújá State, Chutiá Nágpur, Bengal; about 2 miles south-east of Mánpura village. It stands on the rocky shoulder of a hill, and commands a deep gorge overgrown with jungle. Among the trees are the remains of carved temples, almost covered with accumulations of vegetable mould. Here Colonel Ousely found a complete *linga*, with a well-carved face and head projecting from its surface.

Jubbal (*Jubal*).—One of the Hill States under the Government of the Punjab, situated between 30° 46′ and 31° 4′ N. lat., and between 77° 27′ and 77° 50′ E. long. Jubbal was originally tributary to Sirmúr (Sarmor), but after the Gurkhá war it was made independent. The Rána misgoverned the State, and in 1832 abdicated in favour of the British Government. He very soon, however, repented the act, and refused the allowance of £440 a year which was made for his support. After a lengthy correspondence, it was resolved in 1840 to restore the State. In that year the Rána died, and Government approved the succession of his son, Tika Karm Chánd, who died in 1877 and was succeeded by his son, Padam Chánd, the present Rána. The family is by caste Rahtor Rájput. The area of the State is 288 square miles. It contains 472 villages and a population (1881) of 19,196, namely, males 10,605, and females 8591. Hindus numbered 19,159, and Muhammadans 37. Estimated revenue, nearly £4000. The chief products are grain and opium. Sentences of death passed by the Rána require the confirmation of the Superintendent of Hill States and of the Commissioner of the Division. Other punishments are awarded by the Rána on his own authority.

Jubbulpore.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and city in the Central Provinces.—*See* JABALPUR.

Juggaur.—Town and railway station in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated about three miles south of the Lucknow and Faizábád (Fyzábád) road. A Musalmán village conquered from the Bhars by a family of Shaikhs, who colonized 52 villages in this part of the country, for which they received a *farmán* confirming them in the proprietary right. Their descendants are still proprietors of Juggaur. Population (1881), Hindus, 1613; Muhammadans, 653; total, 2266.

Juhar (*Jawáhir*).—Valley in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 10′ to 30° 35′ N., long. 79° 49′ to 80° 19′ E. One of the Bhutiá *mahál*s, or tracts on the northern Himálayan slopes inhabited by people of Tibetan origin. The population have, however, adopted the language, customs, and religion of their Hindu neighbours. They are chiefly engaged in commerce, being the only Bhutiás who enjoy unrestricted intercourse with Gartoh, where a great annual fair is held in September. During the official year 1876–77, the value of the imports by Lilam from Juhar amounted to £12,600, and that of the exports to £4100.

Ju-i-Sharki.—Town in Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 12 miles from Bareli town, at a distance of 2 miles from the Sai river. Population (1881) 2623, namely, Hindus, 2513, and Muhammadans, 110. Government school.

Jullundur.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and city, Punjab.—*See* JALANDHAR.

Jummoo.—Province and town in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* KASHMIR AND JAMMU.

Jumna (*Jamuná*).—A river of the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab. It rises in the Himálayas, in the Native State of Garhwál, about 5 miles north of Jamnotri, and about 8 miles north-west of the lofty mountain Bandarpánch (20,731 feet), in lat. 31° 3′ N., and long. 78° 30′ E. From this place the Jumna flows south for 7 miles, past Jamnotri, and then turns to the south-west for 32 miles, receiving on its right bank two small streams, the Badiar and the Kamaláda; thence it runs due south for 26 miles, receiving the Badri and the Aslaur as tributaries. Just below the point of junction of the latter, the Jumna turns sharply to the west, and continues in this direction for 14 miles, till it is joined on its right bank by the great river Tons from the north, and at the same time it emerges from the Himálayas into the valley of the Dún, in long. 77° 53′ E. From this point it flows in a south-westerly direction for 22 miles, dividing the Kiarda Dún on the west from the Dehra Dún on the east; and it receives in this stretch two large affluents, the Giri from Sirmúr (Sarmor) on the west, and the Asan from the east.

In the 95th mile of its course, the Jumna leaves the Siwálik Hills and enters the plains at Faizábád in Sahāranpur District. It now flows for 65 miles in a south-south-west direction, dividing the Districts of Ambálá (Umballa) and Karnál in the Punjab from those of Sahāranpur and Muzaffarnagar in the North-Western Provinces. By the time the Jumna debouches on the plains, it has become a large river, and near Faizábád it gives off both the WESTERN and EASTERN JUMNA CANALS (*qq.v.*). At Rájghát it receives the Maskarra stream from the east, but no other tributaries of any size join it in this section. Near Bidhauli, in Muzaffarnagar District, it turns due south, and runs in that direction for 80 miles till it reaches the city of Delhi; here it turns south-east for 27 miles to near Dankaur, when it again resumes its southerly course. In this portion it receives on the east the Kathanadí and the Hindan river, while on the west the Sabinadí joins it a little north of Delhi. The Jumna here separates the Punjab Districts of Karnál and Delhi and the Native State of Ballabhgarh from the Districts of Muzaffarnagar, Meerut (Merath), and Bulandshahr, in the North-Western Provinces. From Dankaur to Mahában, near Muttra (Mathurá), a distance of about 100 miles, the Jumna receives no affluents

of any size; it divides the Punjab District of Gurgáon from the Districts of Bulandshahr and Alígarh in the North-Western Provinces, and near Hodal it enters the North-Western Provinces altogether. It flows through the centre of the District of Muttra till it leaves it near Mahában to enter the District of Agra. The Agra Canal forms a recent and an important work.

From Mahában the Jumna turns eastwards and flows a little south by east for nearly 200 miles. In this part of its course the river winds in a remarkable manner through the ravines of Agra and Etáwah Districts; the bed of the stream is narrower, and the banks higher and steeper than in its upper reaches It receives on its left or northern bank the Karwanadí near Agra, and on its right or southern the river Utanghan. It passes the towns of Agra, Firozábád, and Etáwah. From Etáwah the Jumna takes a more southerly direction, and flows south-east for 140 miles to Hamírpur. In this portion of its course the river passes through the southern tract of Etáwah, and then forms the boundary between Etáwah and Cawnpur Districts on the north, and Jaláun and Hamírpur Districts on the south. On its north bank the Jumna is joined by the Sengur a little below Kálpí; and on its south bank, by the great river Chambal from the west 40 miles below Etáwah, and by the Sind on the borders of Etáwah and Jaláun.

From Hamírpur, till its junction with the Ganges at Allahábád, the Jumna flows nearly due east. It separates the Districts of Fatehpur and Allahábád on the north from that of Bánda on the south, until it enters Allahábád District, and finally falls into the Ganges, in lat. 25° 25′ N., and long. 81° 55′ E., three miles below the city of ALLAHABAD, the only important town which the Jumna passes during this last section of its course. Total length from its source, 860 miles. Its chief tributaries in this part of its course are the Betwá and the Ken.

The Jumna, after issuing from the hills, has a longer course through the North-Western Provinces than the Ganges, but it is not so large or so important a river, and above Agra in the hot weather it dwindles to a small stream. This is no doubt partly caused by the two canals (the Eastern and Western Jumna Canals) taken off from it at Faizábád, where it issues from the Dún.

The trade on the Jumna is not now very considerable; in its upper portion, timber, and in the lower, stone, grain, and cotton are the chief articles of commerce, carried in the clumsy barges which navigate its waters. These have sails, and always take advantage of a favourable wind; at other times they float down with the current, or are slowly and laboriously tugged up against stream by long strings of boatmen. Its waters are clear and blue, while those of the Ganges are yellow and muddy; and at the point of junction below the fort of Allahábád the difference between the streams can be discerned for some distance

below the point at which they unite. Its banks are high and rugged, often attaining the proportions of cliffs, and the ravines which run into it are deeper and larger than those of the Ganges. It traverses in great part the extreme edge of the alluvial plain of Hindustán, and in the latter part of its course almost touches the Bundelkhand offshoots of the Vindhya range of mountains. Its passage is therefore more tortuous, and the scenery along its banks is more varied and pleasing than that of the Ganges.

The Jumna at its source near Jamnotri is 10,849 feet above the sea-level; at Kotnur, 16 miles lower, it is only 5036 feet; so that, between these two places, it falls at the rate of 314 feet in a mile. At its junction with the Tons, it is 1686 feet above the sea; at its junction with the Asan, 1470 feet; and at the point where it issues from the Siwálik Hills into the plains, it is 1276 feet. The catchment area of the Jumna is 118,000 square miles; its flood discharge at Allahábád, 1,333,000 cubic feet per second; discharge per square mile of catchment area, 11·3 cubic feet per second.

The Jumna is now crossed by railway bridges at Delhi, Agra, and Allahábád; and there are bridges of boats at Etáwah, Kálpi, Hamírpur, Muttra, Chillatára, and other places.

Jumna (*Jamuná*) **Canal, Eastern.**—An important irrigation work in Sahéranpur, Muzaffarnagar, and Meerut (Merath) Districts, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 38′ to 30° 19′ N., long. 77° 19′ to 77° 38′ E. It derives its supply from the left or eastern bank of the river Jumna, irrigates the western portion of the Upper Doáb, and eventually tails into the Jumna (Jamuná) in Meerut District, after a course of 160 miles. The frequent recurrence of famines in this part of India, before the establishment of British rule, and for some years subsequently, caused attention to be directed at an early period of our occupation to the necessity for an extended system of canals. Owing to the pressure of other important measures, however, it was not till the close of 1823 that the actual work of excavation commenced, and the canal reached its completion in 1830. Being the first large irrigation scheme undertaken in India by our authorities, some changes in detail became necessary at a later period, but the work as a whole reflects the greatest credit upon its projectors. From the Jumna head-works to the 11th milestone, the bed consists of boulders or shingle, gradually decreasing in size; thenceforward to Sarkári (26 miles), sand and clay predominate on the bottom, interspersed between Sarkári and Jauli (123 miles) with nodular carbonate of lime, and merging below Jauli into pure sand.

On the sandy sections, erosion has been avoided by the construction of falls, also utilized as motive-power for flour-mills. Rows of *sál*, *sisu*, teak, and *tún* trees fringe the bank, and their timber forms an important

item in the revenue. The total area irrigated by the Eastern Jumna Canal during the year 1875–76 amounted to 195,846 acres, of which 87,294 belonged to the *kharif* or autumn harvest, and 108,552 to the *rabi* or spring harvest. In 1880, the total area irrigated by the canal was 235,862 acres; and in 1882–83, 254,513 acres. Taking the average of five years ending 1881–82, the total area annually irrigated by the canal amounts to 245,933 acres, of which 140,807 acres belong to the *kharif*, and 141,126 to the *rabi* harvest, the average water-supply at Kalsiá being 1116 cubic feet for the *kharif*, and 933 cubic feet for the *rabi*. The area irrigated for each cubic foot of supply was accordingly 93·89 acres in the former case, and 151·18 acres in the latter. The water was dispersed by means of main distributaries, having a total length of 618 miles. The following table shows the tariff in force in 1876:—

Class.	Nature of Crop	Per Acre irrigated by		Per
		Natural Flow	Lift.	
		s. *d.*	*s.* *d.*	
I.	Sugar-cane, . . .	10 0	6 [illegible]	Year.
II.	Rice, tobacco, opium, vegetables, gardens, or orchards, . . .	6 0	4 [illegible]	Crop.
III.	All *rabi* crops, indigo, cotton, ...	4 6	3 0	Crop.
IV.	All *kharif* crops, or crops not above specified, ...	3 4	2 0	Crop

By 'flow' is understood water which reaches the fields from distributaries above their level; and by 'lift,' water which must be raised by means of buckets or otherwise to the level of the fields.

The canal opened in 1830 with a debit against its capital account of £43,800. The following statement shows the financial position of the undertaking in 1875–76, and in 1881:—Outlay during 1875–76, £12,273; and £47,000 in 1881. Outlay from date of opening to the end of 1875–76, ordinary £218,293, extraordinary £13,450—total, £231,743. Total outlay to end of 1881, £266,990. The revenue account in 1875–76 yielded the following gross results:—Revenue during the year—direct income, £59,248; increased land revenue, £46,857 total, £106,105: revenue from opening—direct income, £1,039,485; increased land revenue, £221,555; total, £1,261,040: working expenses—during the year, £23,027; from opening, £459,508. In 1881, the revenue account showed the following gross results:—Revenue during the year—direct income, £73,918; increased land revenue (*i.e.* indirect income), £22,153; total, £96,071: working expenses during

the year, £17,287, showing a profit of £78,784. From the opening of the canal up to the end of 1881, the total direct income has been £1,450,472, and the total increased land revenue, £354,476; grand total, £1,804,948. Total working expenses from opening to the end of 1881, £578,445, showing a profit of income over expenditure of £1,226,503. According to the principle of calculating profit and loss officially adopted, the net revenue in 1875-76 shows a return of 15·63 per cent. on capital, or including increased land revenue, a return of 35·25 per cent. In 1881, the net revenue shows a return of 21·2 per cent. on capital, or including increased land revenue, a return of 29·5 per cent.

The following are the details of direct income for 1875-76:—Water rates, £54,649; mill rents, £1145; canal plantations, £2869; miscellaneous, £585; total actual receipts, £59,248. The details of direct income for 1881 are as follow:—Water rates, £70,351; mill rents, £1171; canal plantations, £1681; miscellaneous, £715; total actual receipts, £73,918.

Jumna (*Jamuná*) **Canal, Western.**—An important irrigation work in Ambálá (Umballa), Karnál, Delhi, Rohtak, and Hissár Districts, Punjab. Lat. 28° 54′ to 30° 13′ N., long. 76° 35′ to 77° 26′ E. It takes its supply of water from the Jumna at Háthni Kúnd, on its western bank, at Tájawálá, about a mile and a half below the point where the river debouches from the Siwálik hills. The head-works consist of a permanent weir across the river bed, with scouring and regulating sluices on both banks, those on the right bank feeding the Western, and those on the left the Eastern Jumna Canal. One-third of the Jumna river has already been carried off for the Eastern Jumna Canal, whose head stands 3½ miles higher up the channel. Nearly the whole river at Háthni Kúnd is diverted by artificial cuts and dams, first into the Budhi Jumna, and then into the Patrála torrent. The latter shortly joins the Sombh, and just below their junction, at Dádúpur, a dam crosses the united stream and turns the whole body of water into the canal. The canal diverges at an acute angle from the Sombh, and the water is admitted through a regulator on the western bank of that river. The dam is 777 feet in length, and consists of a series of masonry piers, 3 feet in thickness, with openings of 10 feet wide. When it is required to stop the water back into the canal, these openings are closed by boards; while by the removal of the boards, the whole water of the river can at any time be allowed to escape down the bed of the Sombh, and thence into the Jumna.

The first irrigation cut from the Jumna, of which record remains, was drawn about the middle of the 14th century by the Emperor Fíroz Sháh Tughlak for the supply of his city of Hissár. The head-works probably coincided with those of the modern undertaking (although

the precise position cannot be determined), and the alignment followed one or other of the natural channels intersecting the Jumna lowlands as far as Karnál. Thence a short excavation led into a line of drainage connected with the Chutang, whose bed may still be traced to its junction with the Ghaggar. The old canal appears to have terminated in a small masonry tank a little beyond Hissár; and the absence of distributaries or their remains along its course would seem to show that it was not employed for intermediate irrigation, but simply for the supply of the imperial grounds. Two hundred years later, the channel, which had silted up in the interim, was reopened by order of Akbar, about 1568. About the year 1628, Alí Mardán Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, took off a large branch for the purpose of bringing water to the new city of Delhi. This work must have been executed with considerable skill and at great cost. Another branch was at the same time carried in the direction of Rohtak.

During the decline of the Mughal Empire, however, and the period of Sikh reaction, the canal gradually silted up once more, and, ceasing to flow about the middle of the 18th century, remained in disuse until after the introduction of British rule. In 1817, our Government undertook the restoration of the Delhi branch, and the water re-entered that city in 1820. The restoration of the Hissár branch followed in 1823–25, and during the succeeding year, irrigation commenced in Hissár District. The famine year of 1832–33, however, first roused the cultivators to a sense of its value. The total length of canal now open amounts to 433 miles, with an aggregate of 259 miles of distributing channels, besides private watercourses. From Dádúpur to Karnál (40 miles in a straight line), the canal takes a winding course through the lowlands, by an old bed, parallel in the main to the Jumna. Six miles below Karnál it passes south-westward through the high outer bank of the river valley by a cutting. At Rer, 14 miles below, the Delhi branch strikes off due south, traverses Delhi city, and terminates in a junction with the river. The Rohtak branch leaves the main line 11 miles farther on, and, passing Rohtak, loses itself in a sandy tract south of that town. The Butána branch strikes off 3½ miles below the Rohtak, and, dividing into two forks, ends after a course of 27 miles a little beyond Butána. The main line continues along Fíroz Sháh's alignment, in a tortuous channel, till it meets the Chutang Nadí, whose bed it utilizes for the remainder of its course. Flowing south-westward as far as Hánsi, and then slightly northward to Hissár, it divides into two branches, one of them artificial, and finally ends in the sands beyond the British frontier. After very heavy seasons, a small quantity of water finds its way to the Ghaggar.

The following statement shows the area irrigated during the ten years ending 1873, and also during the six years from 1877–78 to 1882–83:—

1863–64, 351,537 acres; 1864–65, 434,964 acres; 1865–66, 397,963 acres; 1866–67, 447,171 acres; 1867–68, 331,037 acres; 1868–69, 486,878 acres; 1869–70, 496,542 acres; 1870–71, 472,404 acres; 1871–72, 444,385 acres; 1872–73, 351,820 acres. In 1877–78, the irrigated area was 507,974 acres; 1878–79, 398,460 acres; 1879–80, 310,680 acres; 1880–81, 265,551 acres; 1881–82, 300,545 acres; 1882–83, 374,243. Average for the six years ending 1882–83, 359,576 acres. The total capital outlay of the British Government upon this canal up to the end of 1872–73, amounted to £311,693, and up to the end of 1882–83, £884,952. No data exist upon which an estimate of its original cost may be based. The canal, with its extensions now (1884) approaching completion, is intended to protect an area of 1640 square miles. The following table exhibits the financial state of the undertaking for fourteen years ending 1883–84:—

STATEMENT SHOWING AREA IRRIGATED, INCOME, WORKING EXPENSES, AND PROFIT ON THE WESTERN JUMNA CANAL FROM 1870–71 TO 1883–84.

Year.	Gross Income.		Working Expenses.	Profit.		Percentage upon Capital at the beginning of the Year.		Area Irrigated in Acres.
	Direct.	Direct with Indirect.		Direct.	Direct with Indirect.	Direct.	Direct with Indirect.	
	£	£	£	£	£			
1870–71	150,757	188,013	33,873	116,884	154,140	44·46	58·63	462,707
1871–72	109,296	146,552	37,645	71,651	108,907	25·66	39·01	444,385
1872–73	102,300	139,556	40,118	62,182	99,438	20·86	33·36	351,821
1873–74	100,328	137,585	37,298	63,030	100,287	22·21	32·17	311,747
1874–75	91,290	128,546	33,873	57,417	94,673	17·18	28·32	382,847
1875–76	100,871	140,999	37,515	63,356	103,484	16·64	27·18	309,595
1876–77	87,813	126,405	38,937	48,876	87,468	1·13	20·23	366,482
1877–78	99,210	136,586	41,872	57,338	94,714	11·74	19·39	507,974
1878–79	118,069	129,706	41,600	76,462	87,399	13·28	15·17	398,460
1879–80	113,086	140,669	47,563	65,523	93,106	9·96	14·17	310,686
1880–81	91,012	181,774	40,825	50,187	140,949	7·17	20·13	265,556
1881–82	120,125	123,933	43,116	77,009	80,817	9·83	10·31	300,545
1882–83	115,949	121,785	47,179	68,770	74,606	8·29	9·00	374,243
1883–84	139,240	145,504	47,766	91,474	97,738	10·34	11·04	472,426

The indirect revenue represents the increase in the receipts from the land-tax, in consequence of the benefits derived from irrigation. The works for the restored canal system above described, as based on the old native works, were begun by Captain Blane and carried out by Major John Colvin. In addition, a costly work now (1884) nearly completed, in the reformation of the middle section of the canal, with a view to the reclamation of swamps and saline efflorescence, produced by the bad alignment of the old canal and its interference with the surface drainage of the country, which have rendered barren thousands of fruitful acres, ruined many populous homesteads, and undermined the health of the whole country-side. This project embraces new permanent head-works on the Jumna; a new main line, taking off from the old channel about 15 miles above Karnál, and terminating at the 28th mile in new regulators for the Delhi and Hánsí branches; a new channel in substitution for the first 55 miles of the former branch; the remodelling of the first 20 miles of that branch; a navigation canal 9¾ miles in length to connect the Delhi branch with the lately opened Agra Canal; and drainage works in the irrigated tract and improvement of the outfall into the river Jumna from the Najafgarh *jhil*, the natural receptacle for the drainage from a portion of the irrigated districts. These rectifications have been rapidly pushed on with. The new head-works on the Jumna have been in use since 1878. The remodelling of the canal and the construction of new distributaries are (1884) approaching completion; some of the drainage schemes connected with them are in hand, while others are being elaborated or are under consideration.

Junágarh (or *Junágadh*).—Native State under the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 48′ to 21° 40′ N., long. 69° 55′ to 71° 35′ E. Area, 3283 square miles. Population (1872) 380,921; (1881) 387,499; number of towns, 7; number of villages, 850; houses, 6578; estimated gross revenue, £200,000. Distributed according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 306,295; Muhammadans, 76,401; 'others,' 4803. Since 1872, the population has increased by 6578. The only elevation rising above the general level of the plain is the Girnár group of hills, the highest peak of which, Gorakhnáth, is about 3666 feet above sea-level. There is also a densely-wooded tract called the Gir, hilly in some parts, but in others so low as to be liable to floods during the rainy season. The soil is generally black, but in certain spots the lighter varieties are found. Irrigation is commonly practised by means of water brought in canals, or drawn from wells by the Persian wheel and the leathern bag. The climate is upon the whole healthy, though, except on the Girnár Hill, the heat is excessive from the beginning of April to the middle of July. Fever and dysentery are the prevailing

Bombay Presidency. Lat. 21° 31′ N., long. 70° 36′ 30″ E., 60 miles south-west of Rájkot. Population (1872) 20,025; (1881) 24,679, namely, 13,605 males and 11,074 females. Hindus numbered 12,910; Muhammadans, 11,287; Jains, 462; Christians, 19; and Parsí, 1.

Junágarh, situated under the Girnár and Dátár hills, is one of the most picturesque cities in India, while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upárkot or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves, and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honeycombed with caves or their remains. The most interesting of these, called Kháprákodia, have the appearance of having been once a monastery, two or three storeys in height. Dr. Burgess, in his *Antiquities of Cutch and Káthiáwár*, has fully described these caves. The ditch is cut entirely out of the rock, and forms a strong defence. In the Upárkot are two *vavs*, said to be built by slave girls of Chudásama rulers of olden times; a mosque built by Sultán Mahmud Begara; near the mosque is a cannon 17 feet long, 7½ feet in circumference at the breech, and 9½ inches in diameter at the muzzle; another large cannon in the southern portion of the fort is 13 feet long, and has a muzzle 14 inches in diameter. The Upárkot has been many times besieged, and often taken, on which occasions the Rájá was wont to flee to the fort on Girnar, which from its inaccessibility was almost impregnable. Of late years a fine hospital and other public buildings have been erected, and the town has been much improved by fine houses built by the nobles of the court. A collection of shops called Máhábat circle is in front of the Nawáb's palace. Here is a clock tower. Upárkot is the ancient Junágarh. The present town is more correctly called Mustafábád, and was built by Mahmud Begada of Gujarát.

Junápádar.—Petty State in Gohelwár Sub-division, Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. It consists of 1 village, Junápádar, with 1 separate tribute-payer. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £55; and tribute of £4, 4s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 16s. to Junágarh. Population (1881) 199. The *tálukdárs* are Khasiá Kolis.

Jungle Maháls.—Formerly a Western District of Lower Bengal. The Jungle Mahals was originally a vague term applied in the last century to the British possessions and semi-independent chiefdoms lying between the regular Districts of Bírbhúm, Bardwán, and Bánkurá, and the hill country of Chutiá Nágpur. As the administration became more precise, inconvenience arose from the vagueness of the jurisdiction, the stoppage of writs, etc. Accordingly Regulation XVIII. of 1805 erected the Jungle Mahals into a distinctly defined District, consisting of 15 *pargands* or *mahdls* from Bírbhúm District (including Pachete), 3 from Bardwán (including most of Bishnupur), and 5 from Midnapur (including Mánbhúm and Barábhúm). The separate District of the Jungle Mahals was abolished by Regulation XIII. of 1833, and the

territory redistributed among the adjoining Districts. It is now comprised within the western parts of Bírbhúm and the Santál Parganás, Bankurá and Midnapur Districts, and within the eastern Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, especially Mánbhúm. The tract lies between lat. 21° 51′ 30″ and 22° 48′ 30″ N., and long. 86° 36′ and 87° 16′ E. Regulation XVIII. of 1805 affords an interesting illustration of the elaborate rules and details involved in the erection of a separate jurisdiction under the Company. There is now no specific tract of country known as the Jungle Maháls.

Junnar.—Sub-division of Púna (Poona) District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 611 square miles; contains 1 town and 153 villages. Population (1881) 102,273, namely, 50,666 males and 51,607 females. Hindus numbered 95,748; Muhammadans, 5006; 'others,' 1519. Since 1872, the population has decreased by 4603. Revenue (1882–83), £14,718. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; number of police stations (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 48 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 93.

Junnar.—Chief town of Junnar Sub-division, Poona (Púna) District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 12′ 30″ N., long. 73° 58′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 10,298; (1881) 10,373, namely, males 5043, and females 5330. Hindus numbered 7952; Muhammadans, 2006; and Jains, 415. Area of town site, 233 acres. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £512; municipal expenditure (1882–83), £195; rate of taxation, 10¾d. per head. Junnar contains a sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

Though fallen in size and importance since the time of Muhammadan rule, and by the subsequent transfer of the seat of government to Poona under the Maráthás, Junnar is still a place of considerable note, being the chief market of the northern part of the District, and a depôt for the grain and merchandise passing to the Konkan by the Nánághát. It was formerly celebrated for the manufacture of paper, but the low rates at which the European article is now sold, have almost driven native paper out of the market. The fort of Junnar, often noticed in Maráthá annals, was built by Málik-ul-Tujjár in 1436. In May 1557, Sivají surprised and plundered the town, carrying off about £100,000 in specie, besides other valuable spoil. About a mile and a half south-west of the town of Junnar is the hill fort of Sivner, granted in 1599 to the grandfather of Sivají, who is said to have been born here in 1627. During the turbulent times of Maráthá warfare Sivner was often taken and retaken, and once, in 1670, the forces of Sivají himself were beaten back by its Mughal garrison. Besides fine gates and solid fortifications, it is celebrated for its deep springs. They rise in pools of great depth, supposed to be coeval with the series of Buddhist caves which pierce the lower portion of the scarp.

Junoná.—Ancient village in Chándá District, Central Provinces.

Lat. 19° 55′ 30″ N., long. 79° 26′ E.; six miles north of Ballálpur, and perhaps connected with it when Ballálpur was the Gond capital of Chándá. Possesses a fine tank, on the stone embankment of which stand the ruined remains of a palace; and in its rear are traces of a wall 4 miles long. An elaborate system of under-channels, now imperfect, communicates with the tank. Population (1881) 322.

Jutogh.—Small military station in Simla District, Punjab; situated on the top of a lofty and steep hill, a few miles from the town of Simla. The quarters of a mule battery of mountain artillery, and of a wing of the British regiment stationed at Subáthu. Area, 365 acres. Population (1881) 953.

K.

Kabadak (or *Kapotáksha*, 'Dove's Eye').—River of Bengal. A deltaic distributary of the Mátábhángá, branching off from that river near Chándpur, in Nadiyá District, whence it flows a winding easterly course for a few miles, after which it turns southwards, marking the boundary between Nadiyá and the Twenty-four Parganás on the one hand and Jessor on the other. Five miles east of Asásuni in the Twenty-four Parganás, it is joined by the Marichháp Gáng, which communicates with the series of boat passages and canals from Calcutta; and two miles below this junction it sends off the Chándkhálí *khál* eastwards into Jessor District, continuing the boat passage towards Khulná, Dacca, etc. Farther to the south, in lat. 22° 13′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 20′ E., the Kabadak unites with the Kholpetuá, and the combined stream then takes the successive names of the Pangásí, Bára, Pángá, Namgad, Samudra, and near the sea, Malanchá, under which name it falls into the Bay of Bengal.

Kábar.—Lake or marsh in Monghyr District, Bengal, lying between 25° 35′ 30″ and 25° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 9′ and 86° 13′ E. long. The chief of a chain of marshes running along the north of the District, with high and abrupt banks, which seem to indicate that they owe their origin to a change of course in the Ganges or Gandak. They are annually filled by the floods of these rivers, and abound in crocodiles, fish, and wild-fowl.

Ka-baung.—A river in Taung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Rises in the Pegu Yoma Hills, and after a south-west course of 68 miles falls into the Tsit-taung just below Taung-ngú, and for some distance up is a fine broad stream. Navigable for about 25 miles; teak, *theng-gan* (used for boat-building), sesamum, etc., are brought down this stream for the Taung-ngú market.

Kabbal-durga.—Conical hill in Malvalli *táluk* of Mysore District, Mysore State, in the watershed between the Shimsha and Arkavati rivers.

Lat. 12° 30′ N., long. 77° 22′ E. It is fortified, and accessible only on one side by narrow steps hewn in the rock. Used as a penal settlement under the Hindu and Musalmán dynasties, 'where the insalubrity of the climate was mercifully added to the unwholesome water to shorten the sufferings of State prisoners.' It was dismantled and abandoned in 1864. The name of Jaffarábád, given by Haidar Alí, is now forgotten.

Kabbani.—River of Mysore and Madras Presidency.—*See* KAPINI.

Kabrái.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 2272. Situated near the Brahm Tál, an extensive tank, now much silted up, but once a fine sheet of water, the construction of which is attributed to the Chandel Rájá Babrahm. Ruins of ancient temples and other architectural remains are still shown on its banks.

Kábul (*Kábal*).—Principal Province of Afghánistán, bounded on the north-west by the Koh-i-Bába; on the north by the Hindu-Kúsh; on the north-east by the Panjsher river; on the east by the Suláimán range; on the south by the Sáfed Koh and Ghazní; and on the west by the hill country of the Hazáras. The following articles on the Province, city, and river of Kábul are condensed from General Sir C. M. Macgregor's Account (1871), brought up to 1882 by Lieut.-Col. W. S. A. Lockhart:—

The Province of Kábul is mountainous, but contains many rich arable valleys along the base of the hills. Wheat is the chief product, and after it barley. The poorest classes consume a considerable proportion of barley and pease in their food. There are none so poor but that they occasionally indulge in animal food, and the rich in a great measure subsist on it. Corn is imported from as far as the environs of Ghazní. Rice is brought from Upper Bangash, Jalálábád, Laghmán, and even Kúnar; in a dear year corn is sometimes brought from Bámián in small quantities. The supply of *ghí* is chiefly from Bámián and the Hazárajját. The quantity of grain annually imported into the valley does not bear a great proportion to that produced in it, and provisions are seldom dear. In the valleys a good deal of wood is cultivated—willows and sycamores. In Kohistán and Kuram there is abundance of timber. The orchards of Kábul, which are very numerous, are chiefly in the Koh Dáman; and in it the valley of Istálif is celebrated for the excellence and profusion of its fruits, and also for its picturesque beauties. The chief pasturage is in Logar, and on the south, as also towards Ghorband. The Division of Bútkhák is that in which agriculture is most pursued. In the whole valley the watered lands much exceed the unwatered, but in the southern skirts there are some small spaces in which the reverse is true. Fodder is plentiful in Kábul and most parts of the valley; artificial grasses constitute a considerable part of it in those quarters where pasturage is

much pursued. A part of the population live in tents in summer, but otherwise stone or brick houses are used, and the most common kind is the flat-roofed. The chief stock is in cows, except where pasturage is followed, and there sheep are a more important object. A considerable trade is carried on by the Kábulís, especially with Turkistán and Hindustán. A trade in horses and ponies is carried on with Turkistán.

The villages are of various sizes, and on an average contain 150 families; they are not fortified, but invariably contain small castles or private forts of no strength There are few wastes or spaces ill supplied with water in the whole Province; such as do exist are towards the south and the north-west limits. With respect to carriage, bullocks are chiefly used within the valley; those who trade to Khorasán employ camels; in the east and south of the Province, camels, mules, and ponies are used; in the Hazára country, mules and ponies. The Ghilzáis, who trade to Turkistán by the road of Bámián, use camels. The heavy custom dues imposed in Russian Turkistán have affected the trade of the Province. Cotton fabrics, tea, and other products of British India no longer pass upward to the extent of former years, and the Kábul authorities have therefore lost the revenue accruing from transit dues. The *hakim*, or governor of the Province, was in 1882 Sardár Ahmad Khán, half-brother to the late Amír Sher Alí Khán. The revenue of Kábul Province amounts to £180,000. Its military force is greater than that of any other Province of Afghánistán. The country is by nature strong, and it has good roads through it.

Kábul (*Kábal*).—The capital of Afghánistán; situated between the rivers Kábul and Logar near their junction, 88 miles from Ghazní, 229 miles from Khilát-i-Ghilzái, 316 miles from Kandahár, 94 miles from Jalálábád, 175 miles from Peshávar, and 687 miles from Herát by Kandahár. Lat. 34° 30′ N., long. 69° 18′ E. Population, according to a Census taken by order of the Amír Sher Alí in 1876, about 140,000.

Physical Aspects.—The city of Kábul is situated at the west extremity of a spacious plain, in an angle formed by the approach of two inferior ridges, the Koh Takht Sháh and the Koh Khoja Safar. With the exception of a suburb, it lies on the right bank of the Kábul river. It is about three miles in circumference. To the east and south-east is the Bálá Hissár, or citadel. There are no walls round the city at the present time, though formerly it was encircled by walls constructed partly of burnt bricks, and partly of mud, the trace of which remains most abundantly in the east quarter. The space included within the walls being largely filled with gardens, does not contain above 5000 houses; anciently it may be presumed to have comprised a

of Bábar, and thence winds around the same hill until it reaches the Bálá Hissár. Without the Bálá Hissár, to the east, flows a canal, the Júí Púl Mastán, whose water is held in high repute. It is derived from the river of Logar as it enters the plain of Shevakí, and has a course of about five miles, a length little inferior to that of the Bálá Júí.

There are many wells throughout the various quarters of the city, and in the Bálá Hissár. The waters of these are more or less esteemed, but are generally considered heavy, and decidedly inferior to river water undefiled. The monarchs were accustomed to have the water drunk by them brought from Shakar Dára, a distance of nine miles; and experiments are narrated, testing its superiority over that of the neighbouring valleys of Ferzah, etc. The existence of the marshy ground to the north is by no means beneficial to the health of the city; for it cannot fail to be remarked, that in those years when the accumulation of water is large, dangerous autumnal fevers prevail, and that the contrary happens under converse conditions. In cases of excessive rainfall, the ordinary causes of diminution, absorption, and evaporation are not sufficient to carry off or dissipate the mass, and the superfluity stagnates towards the close of autumn. The effluvia arising from this putrid collection are borne full upon the city by the prevailing winds, particularly by the northerly winds of Parwan, which incessantly rage at that time of the year, and sweep over the more noxious *chaman* of Wazírábád and Bemarú. Still Kábul may not be considered an unhealthy city. Its disadvantages, besides those just noted, are—its situation, wedged in, as it were, between two hills, its confined streets and buildings, with the evils consequent upon them. In compensation, it has the benefits of a fine atmosphere, excellent water and provisions, with delightful environs. The range of thermometer at Kábul from the 6th to the end of August in 1839 was from 46° to 74° F. at 4 A.M., and at 3 P.M. from 72° to 96°; in September at 4 A.M. 50° to 64°, and at 3 P.M. 70° to 90°; from 1st to 14th October at 4 A.M. 30° to 56°, at 3 P.M. 64° to 92°. From 4th to the end of July 1880 the thermometer ranged from 42° to 103° at 9 A.M., and from 56° to 105° at 3 P.M.

The defences of Kábul have been carefully described in Colonel Macgregor's Report, but need not be detailed here. The city played an important part in the first Afghán war. On the 7th August 1839, Sháh Shujá entered Kábul as Amír, escorted by a British army. Throughout that year and the next, the British troops remained without hindrance. On the 2nd November 1841, the citizens and Afghán soldiery broke out in rebellion against the Amír Sháh Shujá, and murdered him. On the 21st December, the English Resident, Sir William MacNaghten, was treacherously shot by Akbar Khán, at an interview for arranging the terms for the British troops withdrawing

from the city. On the 6th January, the British forces marched out under solemn guarantee of protection,—4500 fighting men, with 12,000 followers. Their fate is well known; of all that number only one man, Dr. Brydon, reached Jalálábád, and 95 prisoners were subsequently recovered from the Afgháns. On the 15th September 1842, General Pollock, with his army of retribution, arrived at Kábul, took possession of the citadel (Bálá Hissár) without opposition, and the British forces remained there till 12th October, when the city was evacuated. Previous to the departure of the army, the great *bázár*, the Chár Cháta, was destroyed by gunpowder as a retribution for the murder of Sir William MacNaghten, and the indignities offered to his remains on this spot.

By the treaty of Gandamak, in May 1879, a British Resident was to be stationed at Kábul. (See AFGHANISTAN, vol. i. p. 52.) Accordingly, Major (afterwards Sir Louis) Cavagnari was appointed to this post, and was welcomed to the city with great apparent cordiality by the Amír Yákub Khán. Owing to intrigues which will probably never be unravelled, the fanatical party was allowed to gain head; and on the 3rd September 1879, the British Residency was attacked by a rabble of towns-people and troops, and Sir Louis Cavagnari and his escort were murdered, after a gallant defence.

Orders were immediately given for the despatch of an avenging force from the Kuram valley under Sir Frederick Roberts. The first move towards the Shutar-gardan Pass was made on the 8th of September; the pass was occupied on the 13th; and by the 26th of the month about 6000 men were concentrated at Khushi ready for an advance upon Kábul. The advance, which then immediately began, was not seriously checked until General Roberts arrived on the 5th October at Char-asia, 11 miles from Kábul. Further progress next morning through the Sang-i-Nawishta defile was opposed by a considerable force. The enemy showed in regular formation along the ridge extending from both sides of the Sang-i-Nawishta defile to the heights above the Chardeh valley. Observing that they were concentrating upon the left, in anticipation of the main attack in that direction, Sir F. Roberts resolved upon holding them in check by a feint attack in the direction of the defile, while an outflanking movement was undertaken upon the enemy's right. These tactics proved completely successful, but the resistance offered by the Afgháns was exceedingly stubborn. Before evening the peaks overlooking the Sang-i-Nawishta defile were in our hands, and a small force was pushed through into the plain beyond. On the 8th October, General Roberts occupied the Sherpur Cantonments north of Kábul, capturing 76 guns and howitzers of different calibres; and on the following day the city itself fell into his hands after a feeble show of resistance.

The Bálá Hissár, including the fort and palace, was partially dis-

mantled; the Amír Yákub Khán abdicated; and the guilty city remained under British occupation for nearly a year. A provisional government was instituted, road communication was opened between Kábul and Peshávar by the Khaibar Pass, and the telegraph was completed between these places. Supplies were at first abundantly procurable, and when the troops prepared to go into winter quarters at Sherpur, there was every appearance of local opposition having been broken down, or having melted away.

Early in December, however, it became apparent that disaffection among the tribes was increasing. They had probably looked for the speedy withdrawal of the British troops after exacting retribution for the murder of the Envoy, and the prolonged occupation of the capital had inflamed the national antipathy. It was considered necessary, therefore, before settling finally into winter quarters, to take decided steps for the pacification of the neighbouring Districts. After a general parade of British troops in the plain north of Kábul, two small brigades under Generals Macpherson and Baker were sent to break up some hostile gatherings to the westward. It then appeared that the rising was far more widespread than had been supposed, and after five days' incessant fighting round Kábul, during which the enemy lost very heavily, their numbers had been so largely increased by the arrival of fresh levies, that General Roberts found it impossible any longer to make head against them. By the evening of the 14th December the British forces were all collected within the walls of the Sherpur cantonments, the Afgháns being permitted to take possession of the city, the Bálá Hissár, and the surrounding heights. In Sherpur the force remained more or less closely invested, until the crowning effort of the enemy was made and repulsed upon the morning of the 23rd of December. On that day General Roberts was attacked by fully 50,000 men; but they were beaten off without difficulty, and on the following day an additional brigade under General Charles Gough having joined General Roberts' force, the city of Kábul was again in our hands. The enemy's levies disappeared as rapidly as they had assembled.

After three months of comparative quiet, during which General Sir Donald Stewart marched up from Kandahár to Kábul and assumed command, negotiations were opened with Sardár Abdur Rahman Khán, who had then crossed the Afghán border from Bokhárá. In the month of July 1880, Abdur Rahman was recognised by the British Government as Amír of Kábul. Next month, about 10,000 men under General Roberts marched to Kandahár to relieve the British garrison, which had been besieged there by Sardár Ayub Khán after the disaster of Maiwand. Meanwhile arrangements for the withdrawal of the rest of the British forces by the Khaibar route had been concluded, and three days after General Roberts' departure, *i.e.* on the 11th August,

Sir Donald Stewart left Kábul for India. The Bálá Hissár and the other positions which had been held by the British troops were handed over to the Amír's officials. The withdrawal of all troops from the Khaibar line was completed without difficulty by the 8th September 1880.

Since then the Amír Abdur Rahman has remained in power at Kábul, and has gradually established and strengthened his hold upon the rest of Afghánistán. In June 1881, his supremacy was threatened by the advance of Sardár Ayub Khán from Herat to Kandahár, but the Amír marched in person against the invader, and eventually defeated him. Ayub Khán fled to Herat, and from thence to Persia. In October and November of the same year, during Abdur Rahman's absence from Kábul, the Wardaks and Kohistánis attempted a rebellion, which, however, was crushed by the Amír's governor. Abdur Rahman himself returned to Kábul in December, and he has not since been forced to enter upon any military operations of serious importance.

In 1884, the Russians having occupied Merv and reached the border of Afghánistán, a British Commission composed of 20 political and military officers, with 400 troops and a number of followers, under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Ridgeway, marched through Afghánistán to the neighbourhood of Herat with the view of delimiting the North-Western boundary in concert with the Russians. The march was very successfully conducted, and a new route was opened up *via* Quetta and Nushki. On arrival at the Persian border, the command of the party was taken over by General Sir P. Lumsden, who had been sent out from England. Meanwhile the Amír, who had shown an inclination to visit India, was invited in February 1885 by Lord Dufferin to attend a Darbár at Rawal Pindi. The Amír accepted the invitation, and reached India at the end of March. He was received with considerable display, and a force of all arms was assembled to do honour to the occasion. The Amír was much gratified at the reception accorded to him, and returned to Afghánistán after a fortnight's stay in British territory.

Kábul.—River of Afghánistán. The Kábul river is believed to rise from a copious spring at Sar-i-Chasmah, lat. 34° 21′ N., long. 68° 20′ E., and elevation 8400 feet; but there is said to be another source about 12 miles farther west, on the eastern declivity of the Unái ridge. In its course the main stream is joined by many small tributaries from the south slopes of the Laghmán range. It is at first an inconsiderable stream, everywhere fordable for 60 miles as far as Kábul, at a short distance beyond which place it receives the river of Logar from the south, and thenceforward is a rapid river with a great volume of water. About 40 miles below Kábul, it receives from the north the Panjsher river; 15 miles farther, the Tagao; 20 miles below, the united streams of Alingar

and Alishang; and 20 miles farther, at Bálábágh, the Súrkh-áb from the south. About 2 miles below Jalálábád it is joined by a large river, the Kúnar. After all these accessions, the Kábul river becomes a large stream and unfordable. Flowing with great force, it hugs the north side of the Jalálábád valley until it enters the Mohmand Hills, when it presses towards the north base of the Kháibar range, and is confined between hills till it emerges into the Peshávar valley at Michní. Here it divides into two branches, called the Adúzái and the Nagúmán. The Adúzái, or north branch, receives in three branches the waters of the Swát river. The Nagúmán, or south branch, separates again into several smaller branches at Múki to rejoin again at Zakhi, where also it receives the Bárá river from the south, and then the two branches reunite at Dúobandí. Thence the Kábul river flows 40 miles east-south-east, and falls into the Indus at Attock (Atak), after a course of 300 miles, in lat. 33° 55′ N., and long. 72° 16′ E.

From Sar-i-Chasmah to Jalálábád, this river is of no value except for irrigation; but from Jalálábád to Dúobandí, it affords safe and generally rapid descent by means of rafts of inflated skins. This mode of travelling is a good deal resorted to, especially when the Kháibar Pass is disturbed. It saves a distance of 10 marches, which may be traversed in 12 hours during the floods. From Dúobandí to Attock, the Kábul is navigable for boats of 40 or 50 tons.

From its source at Sar-i-Chasmah to Kábul city the river is everywhere fordable. From Kábul city to Jalálábád it is fordable at a short distance above Jalálábád on the road to Lúghmán in dry weather, and there are ferries at the village of Kutz, on the right bank. The fords, however, between Kábul and Jalálábád are of a more or less temporary and precarious nature according to the season, and both at Sarobí (opposite Naglú) and at Jalálábád there are alternative fords and ferries. At the Jalálábád ford on 31st March 1879, one officer and 46 non-commissioned officers and men of the 10th Hussars were swept away and drowned while attempting a passage in the dark. Opposite Jalálábád there is a difficult ford in April, and thence to Dúobandí the ferries are at Goshta, Lalpúra, Abkhána, Dhaka, Prang (Adúzái branch), Khalíl Bandah (Nagúmán branch). Below Dúobandí are the following ferries:—(1) Nisata to Khalíl Bandah, from 2 to 6 boats. This is the principal ferry between Peshávar and Yúsafzái through Hashtnagar. (2) Dehri Zardád to Sháh Alam, 2 boats. This ferry is little frequented. (3) Khaishkí to Pírpái and Zakhel, 2 boats. This ferry is little frequented. (4) New Naoshahra to old Naoshahra. This is the largest ferry in connection with Yúsafzái. In the hot weather it employs from 6 to 8 boats. In the cold weather, and sometimes throughout the year, there is a bridge of boats below this ferry. (5) Pírsabak to Badrakái. This ferry has been closed of late years. (6) Misríbandah to Akora, 2 boats.

This is the favourite ferry between the east portion of the Yúsafzái plain and the Khataks. (7) Jahángíra to Shaidoh, 2 boats In case of need, 8 or 12 boats can be procured from Attock. The only bridges over the river are at the city of Kábul, and have been described in the article on KABUL CITY.—*See* also AFGHANISTAN.

Kachchh.—Native State, Bombay.—*See* CUTCH.

Kachchh, Runn of.—*See* CUTCH.

Kachhandau.—*Parganá* in Bílgrám *tahsíl*, Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north and east by Mallánwán *parganá*; on the south by Bángarmau *parganá* of Unao District; and on the west by the District of Farukhábád in the North-Western Provinces, the Ganges forming the boundary line. Originally in the possession of the Thatheras, who were expelled by some Chandel subjects of the King of Kanauj. First constituted a *parganá* about 330 years ago by Sher Sháh, who, on his proselytizing march from Jaunpur to Agra, compelled the inhabitants of several Chandel villages to apostatize. Their descendants now intermarry with the families of Ahbans, Ráikwárs, and Gohelwárs, who were converted to Islam at the same time. The *parganá* forms part of the *kachh* or moist low-lying country along the bank of the Ganges, as opposed to the *bángar* or dry upland tract away from the river; hence its name Kachhandau. Area, 47 square miles, of which 28 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £3378; average incidence, 4s. 11½d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 3½d. per acre of total area. Staple products—barley, wheat, millet, rice, *bájra*, gram, *arhar*, sugar-cane of an inferior quality. Of the 34 villages comprising the *parganá*, 16 are owned by Hindu and 8 by Muhammadan Chandels. Of the remaining 10, Bráhmans hold 5; Káyasths, 2; and Panwárs, Ahírs, and Chamárs, 1 each. The prevailing tenure is that known as imperfect *pattidárí*, which obtains in 18 villages; 15 are *zamíndárí*, and only 1 *tálukdárí*. Population (1881) 20,137, namely, males 11,314, and females 8823; average density of population, 428 per square mile. This *parganá* is intersected by two unmetalled roads, and by cart tracks to three ferries on the Ganges. Owing to its liability to inundation, the climate is damp; and when floods are subsiding, fever is very prevalent.

Kachhí Baroda.—*Thákurate* and town in Badnáwar *parganá* of Dhár State of Bhopáwar Agency, Central India. The *thákur* or chief holds from the Dhár Darbár 16 villages under British guarantee, and pays an annual tribute of £966; his revenue is about £3200. The town is situated 8 miles from Badnáwar, the capital of the *parganá*, and 40 miles from the town of Dhár.

Kachhla.—Town in Budáun *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the north or left bank of the Ganges, 18 miles from Budáun town, where the imperial road from Bareli to Háthras

crosses the Ganges on a bridge of boats during the dry season. Agricultural produce is largely conveyed by road from Bareli and Budáun by road to Kachhla, where it is shipped in boats for transfer to Cawnpur and Fatehgarh. Police station, post-office, opium storehouse, *sarái* or native inn, and encamping ground for troops. Market twice a week.

Kachola.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Head-quarters of the Kachola district, comprising the Mewár estate of the chief of Sháhpura. In former times the town, which apparently stood on the western bank of a large lake, must have been a place of some importance; for all around, to a considerable distance, the ground is strewn with fragments of sculpture of a superior character, and half-way up the hill the ruins of a temple are visible.

Kachuá.—Village and police outpost station in Khulná District, Bengal; situated at the junction of the Bhairab and Madhumati rivers, about 6 miles east of Bágherhát. Contains a considerable *bázár*, and is one of three market-places established in the Sundarbans by Mr. Henckell in 1782. A *khál* or creek, crossed by a masonry bridge, divides the villages into two parts. The place probably derives its name from *kachu*, a species of yam, which is grown here in great quantities.

Kadaba.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India. Area, 498 square miles, of which 101 are cultivated. Population (1881) 68,158, namely, 32,541 males and 35,617 females; 65,203 were returned as Hindus, 2919 Muhammadans, and 36 Christians. Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £9974, or 3s. per cultivated acre; total revenue, £14,924. The *táluk* is watered by the Shimshá, which flows through it from north-east to south, forming large tanks at two places, Kadaba and Gubbi. Soil a red mould, shallow and gravelly. Near Dabbigháta some hills yielding black hornblende were formerly quarried for the pillars of temples, tombs, and public buildings. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court and 9 police stations (*thánás*); regular police, 75 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 336. The head-quarters of the *táluk* are at GUBBI.

Kadaba.—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India; 18 miles south-west of Túmkúr town. Lat. 13° 14′ 50″ N., long. 76° 53′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 1679, including a settlement of Srí Vaishnava Bráhmans. Boasts a mythical antiquity, its large tank, formed by a dam across the Shimshá river, being fabled to have been constructed by Ráma on his return from Lanka (Ceylon).

Kadaiyanallúr.—Town in Tenkási *táluk* of Tinnevelly District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 5′ N., long. 77° 23′ E. Population (1881) 7467; number of houses, 1854. A trading town on the road to Travancore, by the Achinkoil Pass. Police station.

Kadalúr (*Kúdalúr*).—*Táluk* and town in South Arcot District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CUDDALORE.

Kadána.—Native State in Rewá Kánthá, Bombay Presidency. Kadána is bounded on the north and east by Dungarpur, Mewár State, on the south-east and south by Sunth, and on the south-west and west by Luná Wara and Rewá Kánthá States. Lat. 23° 16′ 40″ to 23° 30′ 30″ N., long. 73° 43′ to 73° 54′ E. Area, 130 square miles. Population (1872) 12,689; (1881) 14,220, namely, 7322 males and 6868 females. Kadána is rugged, covered throughout with hills and forests. The Máhi river crosses the southern portion of the State. In the extreme south-west, on the left bank of the Máhi, the land is open and rich, but to the north, except a narrow fringe along the river bank, the country is barren and rocky. Kadána is said to have been established as a separate power about the thirteenth century by Limdevji, younger brother of Jálamsingh, a descendant of Jálamsingh, the founder of the town of Jhálod in the Panch Mahals. In spite of its small size, the wildness and poverty of the country have saved it from being swallowed up by any of its neighbours or from being forced to pay tribute to the paramount power. Estimated revenue, £1000. The town of Kadána is situated towards the south-east of the State on the left bank of the Máhi. Lat. 23° 21′ 30″ N., long. 73° 52′ E.

Kadapa.—District, *táluk*, and town in Madras Presidency.—*See* CUDDAPAH.

Kadattanád (*Kartinad*).—One of the ancient chieftainships (*náds*) into which Malabar District of the Madras Presidency was formerly divided; situated between 11° 36′ and 11° 48′ N. lat., and between 75° 36′ and 75° 52′ E. long.; stretching from the sea-coast up the western declivity of the Western Gháts. The level tracts near the sea are very fertile, but suffered to such an extent from the devastations of Tipú Sultán, that the people were unable to raise grain sufficient for their support. The eastern hilly parts are well wooded, and contain indigenous cardamom plants. The petty State was founded in 1564 by a Nair chief, who probably inherited it (in the male line) from the Tekkalankúr (Southern Regent) of the Kolattiri kingdom, and he and his successors ruled the country until the invasion of Tipú Sultán. On the expulsion of Tipú in 1792, the Nair Rájá was restored, and his family have held the estate ever since. Population, principally Nairs. Chief town, Kuttipuram; lat. 11° 42′ N., long. 75° 44′ E.

Kadi (*Kari*).—Northernmost Division of Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory), Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Estimated area, 3158 square miles. Population (1881) 988,487, namely, Hindus, 893,058; Muhammadans, 63,205; Jains, 32,126, Christians, 44; Pársís, 49; 'others,' 5. Of the Hindus, 57,675 are Bráhmans and 44,387 Rájputs; of the Muhammadans those of the Sunní sect pre-

ponderate. The main portion of the division lies west of the Sábarmatí river. It constitutes an uninterrupted plain, hilly only in the south and east. There are no forests, and no lakes. The climate is hot, but healthy. Rivers abound, and brick wells are numerous. The average rainfall is 32 inches. The division is traversed by the Rájputána-Málwá Railway; seven stations, viz. Siddhpur, Unjha, Bhandu, Mesána, Jagudan, Dangarwa, and Kálol are in the division.

Kadi.—Sub-division of the Dehgám portion of the Kadi division of Baroda State, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Area, 280 square miles; number of towns and villages, 110. Population (1881) 88,733, namely, 45,950 males and 42,783 females. Hindus numbered 78,489; Muhammadans, 8664; Jains, 1552; Pársís, 19; Christians, 4; and 'others,' 5. The general aspect of the Sub-division is an uninterrupted plain bare of all trees. The Sub-division is bounded north by the Mesána Sub-division, east by the Kálol Sub-division, south and west by the Viramgám Sub-division of Ahmedábád District.

Kadi (*Kari*).—Town in Baroda State, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 17′ N., long. 72° 21′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 16,689, namely, 8122 males and 8567 females. Kadi is 14 miles west of Kálol station on the Rájputána-Málwá Railway. A heavy sand road connects the two places. Hospital, Anglo-vernacular schools, and post-office. Calico-printing is the chief industry. Round the town and its neighbourhood are field trees in fair abundance and numerous tanks. On the north is a broad sheet of water fringed with trees. A well-preserved gate opens the way to the fort, which stands on a slight elevation; its brick walls and numerous buttresses are of enormous thickness. The Rang and Supra Maháls and the arsenal are some of the principal buildings in the fort. Several fairs are held during the year.

Kádihátí.—Town and municipality in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, on the Calcutta and Bárásat road. Lat. 22° 39′ 10″ N., long. 88° 29′ 48″ E. Population (1872) 5680; in 1881, the population was below 5000, and the place is not returned as a town in the Census Report of that year. Municipal income (1876–77), £132; expenditure, £221; rate of municipal taxation, 5¼d. per head. No municipality in 1881. English school.

Kádipur.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division in Sultánpur District, Oudh, lying between 25° 58′ 30″ and 26° 23′ N. lat., and between 82° 9′ and 82° 44′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the Akbarpur *tahsíl* of Faizábád (Fyzábád); on the east by the District of Azamgarh in the North-Western Provinces; on the south by the Patti *tahsíl* of Partábgarh; and on the west by Sultánpur *tahsíl*. Area, 439 square miles, of which 229 are cultivated. Population (according to the Census of 1869) 234,707; in 1881, 246,171, of whom 229,843 were Hindus, and 16,328 Musal-

máns; number of males, 126,789, and of females, 119,382. Number of villages or towns, 764; average density of population, 563 persons per square mile. The *tahsíl* comprises the 2 *parganás* of Chándá and Aldemau.

Kádirábád.—Town in Aurangábád District, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) State (Nizám's Dominions), Southern India. Population (1881) 9876. Situated opposite Jálna, on the Kundalika stream. Kádirábád is a town of recent growth, and has a considerable trade in English manufactured goods and country produce.—*See* JALNA.

Kadiri.—*Táluk* in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 48′ 30″ to 14° 28′ N., long. 77° 43′ to 78° 31′ 30″ E. The *táluk* is irregular in shape, its extreme breadth being 35 miles, and its extreme length 45 miles. In the north is a rocky range of hills. Area, 1416 square miles, with 143 towns and villages, and 26,299 houses. Population (1881) 116,252, namely, 59,656 males and 56,596 females. Hindus numbered 106,967; Muhammadans, 9274; and Christians, 11. The climate is hot and unhealthy. The rivers and almost all the tanks are dry during the hot months. The wells are very deep, and four pair of bullocks are frequently used during the day for drawing the water. The *táluk* contains 3188 wells and 423 tanks. The soil is poor, but patches of black soil are met with here and there. Generally the country is scattered over with rocks and boulders of disintegrated granite. There are six roads covering 128 miles. Five of the roads meet in the *kasba* or head-quarters town. Chief products—rice, gram, *cholam* (great millet), sugar-cane, and cotton. The silk manufacture has been discontinued. Ironstone and granite are the minerals. Pasture is scanty and precarious. In 1883 there were [illegible] criminal courts; police stations, 14; and regular police, 110 men. Land revenue, £12,241.

Kadiri.—Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 7′ N., long. 78° 16′ E. Population (1881) 5004, namely, 2471 males and 2533 females, occupying 1141 houses: Hindus numbered 3555; Muhammadans, 1443; and Christians, 6. Head-quarters of the Kadiri *táluk;* dispensary; elementary school. There is a pagoda here, the dancing girls of which contribute towards keeping up the bad reputation of the town. The pagoda is resorted to by crowds of pilgrims in the beginning of the year. Kadiri must have been at one time a Muhammadan town, though the buildings show no signs of Muhammadan architecture, yet for two miles outside the town there are many tombs and mosques. The Muhammadan occupation must have been previous to the building of the pagoda, which appears more recent than the tombs.

Ka-do.—Village in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Ka-do lies on the bank of the Gyaing, at the mouth of

the Ka-do creek, close to the junction of the Gyaing and the Salwín. The town is well laid out with brick-tiled streets shaded by trees. The Government timber station at which all logs brought down the Salwín are collected, and the duty on them paid. Population (1881) 2685. Within the jurisdiction of the Judge and Magistrate of Maulmain.

Kadúr.—District of Mysore State, Southern India. Kadúr District forms the south-western portion of the Nagar Division of Mysore, and lies between 13° 12′ and 13° 58′ N. lat., and between 75° 8′ and 76° 25′ E. long. It is bounded on the west by the Western Gháts, which separate it from the District of Kanara in the Madras Presidency; on the north by Shimoga District (Mysore); on the east by the Chitaldrúg District (Mysore); and on the south by Hassan District (Mysore). Area, 2984 square miles. Population (1881) 328,327. The administrative head-quarters are at CHIKMAGALUR.

Physical Aspects.—The larger portion of the District consists of the Malnád or highlands, which contains some of the wildest mountain scenery in Southern India. The frontier on the west is formed by the lofty chain of the *gháts*, of which the highest peaks are the Kuduremukha (6215 feet) and the Meruti Gudda (5451 feet). The centre of the District is occupied by the horse-shoe range of the Bába Budans, which boasts the loftiest mountain in Mysore—Mulaingiri—rising to a height of 6317 feet above the sea. Companion heights of the same group are Bába Budan-giri (6214 feet) and Kalhatti-giri (6155 feet). There are many minor ranges; and the whole of the Malnád is broken into hills and valleys, which are alike covered with primeval forest, teeming with the characteristic fauna and flora of the tropics, and little disturbed by the invasion of man. The Maidán or plain country, lying towards the east, partakes of the general character of the Mysore plateau. The elevation slopes from 3400 to 2400 feet. The principal rivers of the District are the twin streams of the Tunga and the Bhadra, which rise near each other in the *gháts*, and, after a long separation, unite to form the Tungabhadra, itself a tributary of the Kistna. The Hemavati has its source in the south of the District, but almost immediately enters the District of Hassan. The eastern portion of Kadúr District is watered by the river system of the Vedavatí. Where this river leaves the Bába Budan Mountains, it is embanked to form two extensive tanks, which irrigate the lower valley. One of these tanks, four miles north-west of Sakraypatna, forms an expanse of water seven miles in circumference, dotted with islands. From all the rivers water is drawn off into irrigation channels by means of anicuts or weirs. The valley lying beneath the amphitheatre formed by the Bába Budan Hills is the most fertile portion of the District. It commands an unfailing supply of water from the hill streams, and the soil is the famous 'black cotton-soil.'

Among mineral products, iron is largely obtained and smelted along the foot of the hills, and corundum is found in certain localities. But the chief natural wealth of Kadúr lies in its forests, which contain some fine timber, and also furnish shelter for the coffee plantations. The highest mountains are precipitous, and bare of trees; but the slopes and the valleys are clothed with valuable timber, arranged in park-like clumps, between which stretch glades of luxuriant grass. Teak is abundant, especially in the Lakwalli *táluk*, and sandal-wood is also found. About 78 square miles have been reserved as State forests, and trees are planted in avenues along the public roads. The eastern *táluks*, on the other hand, hardly possess sufficient food for fuel. In the Malnád, wild animals are numerous. Wild elephants are occasionally seen, and bison abound Beasts of prey include the tiger, leopard, and bear; and the *shivanga* or hunting leopard is found. Wild hog are very destructive to the crops, especially to plantations of sugar-cane. Deer and antelope are common. The flying squirrel, porcupine, and different varieties of the snake are everywhere met with. Fish are abundant in both rivers and tanks, and are caught by rod and line, by nets, and in long conical traps of bamboo. At certain sacred spots in the rivers they are fed daily by the priests, and are so tame as to rise to the surface at call.

History.—As containing the hallowed sources of the Tungabhadra, Kadúr District abounds with scenes associated with the legends of the *Rámáyana*. Sringeri or Rishya-sringa-giri, on the Tunga river, takes precedence of all other places in its claims to mythical antiquity. Here it was that the sage Rishya-sringa was born without a natural mother, by whose intervention alone could 'the horse sacrifice' be celebrated and Ráma himself be brought into the world. Here also, in historical times, was the home of Sankaráchárya, the great Sivaite reformer of the 8th century; and here at the present day resides the *jagat-guru* or supreme high priest of the Smarta Bráhmans. The most ancient sites connected with local history are the ruins of Ratnápuri and of Saka-ráya-patna, both of which are described as the capitals of powerful kings before the rise of the Ballála dynasty. On the overthrow of the Ballálas by the Muhammadans, the Vijayanagar Empire established itself over all Southern India; but in this region, as in other outlying tracts, the Government really fell into the hands of feudatory chiefs, who asserted all the attributes of independence. The three leading families in Kadúr were those of Karkala, Aigur, and Tarikere. Subsequently the greater part of the District was overrun by the Ikkeri or Bednúr *palegár* from the neighbouring District of Hassan, who was in his turn defeated in 1694 by the conquering Hindu Rájás of Mysore.

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country in the Mysore dominions. In 1799, after the death of Tipú, Kadúr was restored to the Hindu kingdom then set up by the Marquis of Wellesley. But the memories of local independence were strong in this remote and wild country, and the abuses of the Bráhman officials provoked a general discontent both among the Lingáyats and the general body of the cultivators. In 1831, the people broke out into open insurrection, and found a natural leader in the representative of the old family of the Tarikere *palegárs*, who was also joined by a large number of Thugs or professional stranglers. The insurgents seized upon several forts, and proved themselves too strong for the native government. In the early months of 1831, the insurrection was suppressed by a British force; and the inquiry that followed led to the assumption by the British of the direct administration of the entire State of Mysore. Kadúr was formed into a separate District in 1863; and two years later, Chikmagalúr was fixed upon as the civil station in place of Kadúr town, though the District retains its original name.

Population.—In 1838, a report by Mr. Stokes estimated the population of the District, which was then much smaller in extent, at 145,394 persons; and a *khána-sumári* house enumeration in 1853–54 returned a total for the present area of 236,178. The regular Census of 1871 ascertained the number to be 333,925, showing a comparative increase of 88 per cent. in the interval of thirty-three years, and of 41 per cent. in the latter period of eighteen years, if the earlier estimates can be trusted. The Census of 1881 showed a total population for the District of 328,327, or a decrease of 5598 since 1871. This decrease is due to the mortality caused by the famine of 1876–78. The area of the District is 2984 square miles, showing, when compared with population, an average of 110 persons per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 169,668 males and 158,659 females; proportion of males, 51 per cent. There are, under 15 years of age, 60,943 boys and 56,728 girls; total, 117,671, or 35·8 per cent. of the District population. Of the 1373 towns and villages in Kadúr District in 1881, 837 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 385 from two to five hundred; 126 from five hundred to a thousand; 17 from one to two thousand; 5 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; and 2 from five to ten thousand. The Census classifies the male population according to occupation into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 5354; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2260; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 4117; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 86,688; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 6995; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising

general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 64,254.

The *religious division of the people shows*:—Hindus, 313,290, or 95·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 13,789, or 4 per cent.; Christians, 1245; and 'others,' 3. The Bráhmans number 16,004, almost exclusively belonging to the Smarta sect of Hindus, whose head-quarters are at the sacred village of Sringeri; those claiming the rank of Kshattriya are returned at 518, including 453 Rájputs. Komatís, who form the bulk of the trading castes, number 1252, agricultural castes, including 21,649 Lingáyats, are returned at 183,478. The Lingáyats have always been influential in this part of the country. Out-castes are returned at 62,020; wandering tribes, 13,506, non-Hindu aboriginal castes and tribes, 62. The Musalmáns, who muster strongest in the *táluk* of Lakwalli, are almost exclusively of the Sunní sect; there are only 307 Shiás. Out of the total of 1245 Christians, 84 are Europeans (mostly residing on the coffee plantations), and 92 are Eurasians, leaving 1069 for the native converts. According to another principle of classification, there are 182 Protestants and 1063 Roman Catholics.

The District contains 1373 primary (*asali*) populated towns and villages, with 60,883 occupied and 11,303 unoccupied houses. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Villages per square mile, ·46; houses per square mile, 24·2; persons per village, 239, persons per occupied house, 5·39. The only towns in the District with more than 5000 inhabitants are CHIKMAGALUR and TARIKERE. The latter was the residence of an old line of *palegárs*, of whom the last representative was executed for rebellion in 1834. CHIKMAGALUR, the head-quarters of the District, has 7088 inhabitants; TARIKERE, 5266; KADUR, the old civil station, 2193. Other places of more or less importance in the District are —Ajimpur, a cotton centre; Ayyankere, with a magnificent reservoir; Banávar, a village in a *táluk* that was once a small Jain State, but since 1875 the head-quarters of Banávar *táluk* as enlarged by the addition of Kadúr *táluk;* Birur, a centre for the areca-nut trade; Hariharpur; Hiremagalúr, a village in which stands a spear-headed stone pillar, said to be efficacious in restoring any one bitten by a serpent; Kalasa, the vicinity of which produces the finest areca-nut in Mysore; and Koppa. The most interesting sites in the District are to be found on the BABA BUDAN range of hills, where the primeval forest is now dotted with trim coffee plantations. These hills derive their name from Bába Budan, a Musalmán saint, who is said to have first introduced the coffee plant into India from Mecca. His tomb is guarded by a Muhammadan custodian, and is placed in a cave associated with Hindu legends. At Kalhatti, on the Bába Budan hills, is the hot-weather retreat for the European officials from [illegible]

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Districts. The sacred village of SRINGERI, on the Tunga river, has already been referred to.

Agriculture.—The staple food-crop of the District is rice, of which fourteen different varieties are enumerated. It is principally grown on the slopes of the Malnád or hill country, where the natural rainfall is sufficient, and in the river valleys, where the fields can be irrigated from tanks and artificial canals. There are altogether 8740 tanks in the District; and 115 anicuts or dams across the several rivers, irrigating an area of 4928 acres, with a revenue of £6128. The average rent per acre for land suitable for rice is (1880–81) 8s.; for wheat, 4s.; for cotton, 2s.; for sugar-cane, 8s. The produce of land per acre in 1880–81 was—rice, 1143 lbs.; wheat, 1428; cotton, 280; sugar-cane, 1400. The principal 'dry' crop is *ragí* (Eleusine corocana), which is preferred as food by the natives to rice as affording more sustenance. The areca-nut palm flourishes in the moist and sheltered valleys throughout the west.

But the main source of agricultural wealth in Kadúr is derived from coffee. The berry is locally stated to have been first introduced by the Muhammadan saint, Bába Budan, about two centuries ago, who planted it after his return from a pilgrimage to Mecca on the hills, which are still the head-quarters of the cultivation. European capital was not attracted to the enterprise until about 1840, but there are now 90,000 acres planted with coffee. The coffee zone extends over an area of about 1000 square miles, and about one-tenth of this is excellently adapted to the cultivation in respect of soil, aspect, and shade. The statistics for 1875 show a total of 12,376 plantations, owned by 22 Europeans and 4760 natives, with about forty-four million plants. Most native cultivators in this tract possess a few coffee plants at the back of their houses. The returns for 1883 show a total of 23,090 plantations, covering an area of 139,707 acres, yielding approximately 4,955,076 lbs., or 2212 tons of the berry, valued at about £149,140. The plantations owned by Europeans numbered 486, covering 41,237 acres, yielding approximately 2,279,540 lbs., or 1018 tons, valued at £75,092. Those owned by the natives numbered 22,604, covering 98,470 acres, yielding 2,675,536 lbs., or 1194 tons, valued at £74,048. The Mysore Government has recently abolished the *halat*, or tax on coffee, and levies instead from the planters a light land-tax varying from 1s. 8d. to 2s. 6d. an acre. This measure, while securing a fair revenue to Government, has conferred on the planters a better tenure, and induced an improvement of their estates.

Several attempts have been made to introduce the tea plant, but hitherto without success. Efforts to extend the growth of mulberry and of foreign cotton have been equally unsuccessful. The cardamom grows wild in the Malnád, and its systematic cultivation has

recently been undertaken by coffee planters. There is a Government plantation of cinchona (the quinine plant) at Kallatti, on the Baba Budan Hills.

The following agricultural statistics are approximate:—Out of the total area of 2984 square miles in 1880–81, 614 square miles were returned as under cultivation, and 376 more as cultivable. There were (1875) under rice, 42,646 acres; wheat, 2500; other food grains, 70,000; oil-seeds, 3000; sugar-cane, 443; cotton, 300; tobacco, 6500; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 7800; coffee, 60,000; tea, 2. The agricultural stock consisted of 5924 carts and 45,700 ploughs. The cattle of the District are generally small and of an inferior breed. The climate of the Malnád or hill country is very fatal to them, and buffaloes are bred on the plains to be imported into that tract. The returns show a total of 281,963 cows and bullocks, and 86,205 sheep and goats. No later agricultural returns than those quoted are available.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief articles of local manufacture are coarse cotton cloth, *kamblis* or rough blankets, oil and oil-cake. *Jaggery* is also largely made from sugar-cane in certain tracts, and there is a considerable production of iron. Arrack and other spirituous liquors are distilled. A certain amount of catechu or Terra japonica is made, and a little salt. The returns of manufacturing stock show 2000 weaving looms and 115 oil-mills.

The statistics of trade appear to be more accurately kept than in other Districts of Mysore. The total of the annual exports was (1876) valued at £297,000, chiefly destined for Davangere and Bangalore; the imports were valued at £217,000, of which the greater part came from Bangalore and Hassan. The external trade passes by 31 recognised *kanaves* or passes, the most frequented being those of [illegible] and Jodikatte for wheeled carts, and Talagudde and [illegible] for pack-bullocks. A considerable proportion of commodities is still conveyed on the heads of coolies. The interchange of goods between the highlands and lowlands of the District is very brisk. It is estimated that £124,000 worth of dry grain, fine rice, piece-goods, *kamblis*, etc., annually passes along the *kanaves* leading from the Maidán to the Malnad; and that £[illegible] worth of paddy, areca-nut, cardamoms, pepper, coffee, etc., is carried in the reverse direction. Statistics for 1880 estimate the value of the manufactures at £[illegible]. The largest weekly markets are held at the towns of Chikmagalur, Birur, and Tarikere, and at the village of Koppa: the most frequented annual fair is connected with the [illegible] at Sringeri. The most numerously attended religious festivals are the following:—[illegible], [illegible], [illegible]gatte, [illegible], and [illegible]. The total length of State roads in the District is [illegible] miles, maintained at an annual cost of [illegible]; of District roads, [illegible] miles, costing £[illegible].

Administration.—In 1880–81, the total revenue of Kadúr District amounted to £73,563. The chief items were—land revenue, £69,167; *sáyar* or customs, £20,806; *ábkári* or excise, £6247. The District is divided into 6 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, which have, however, recently undergone alteration. In 1870–71, the total number of estates on the register was 62,462. During 1880, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 30·79, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 3; total, 33·79, of whom 1·88 were women. In the same year, the District police numbered 50 officers and 525 men, and the municipal police 2 officers and 15 men; total, 592 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £6271. These figures show 1 policeman to every 5 square miles of existing area or to every 554 persons of the present population, the cost being £2, 2s. 3d. per square mile. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 176, attended by 3027 pupils, being 1 school to every 16·9 square miles of the present area, and 1 pupil to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were, in 1874, 121 unaided schools, with 1235 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—Kadúr District offers a great variety of climate. At the station of Chikmagalúr, the mean annual temperature is 78° F.; during 1880, the maximum recorded was 99° in May, the hottest month of the year; the minimum was 56·6°. The heat in Kadúr would often be excessive, if it were not for the breezes that blow from the mountains on the west and the north. The east winds, on the other hand, exercise an unhealthy influence, and it has been found necessary to shelter the town with a wide belt of trees. In the Malnád the temperature falls much lower, and the cold at night about Christmas-time is very sharp. The rainfall of the District is variable, owing to the same geographical causes. The average at Chikmagalúr during the twelve years ending 1881 was only 32·83 inches; whereas at certain coffee plantations in the Malnád from 100 to 170 inches have been registered in a single year.

In the Malnád, malarious or jungle fevers are always prevalent at certain seasons of the year, from which neither Europeans nor natives are exempt. In the plains, the violent east winds are dreaded as promoting disease. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that, out of the total of 6357 deaths reported in 1880, 4187 were assigned to fevers, 828 to bowel complaints, 19 to small-pox, and 18 to snake-bite and wild beasts. In 1880, the dispensary at Chikmagalúr was attended by 216 in-patients, of whom 22 died; the out-patients numbered 6984. There are also dispensaries at Kadúr and Hariharpur.

Kadúr.—Once a *táluk* in Kadúr District, Mysore State, Southern India, but now absorbed into Banávar. The *táluk* contained 1 criminal

court and 6 police stations (*thánás*); regular police, 71 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 391. Land revenue demand (1883–84), £14,311.

Kadúr ('*Elk Town*').—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 13° 33' N., long. 76° 2' 45" E. Population (1881) 2193; situate 15 miles north-west of Chikmagalúr on the Bangalore-Shimoga road. Inscriptions and other monuments show that there was a settlement of Jains here in the 10th century. Subsequently a fort was built by a local chieftain. In 1863, the District of Kadúr was formed, and two years afterwards the head-quarters were removed from Kadúr to Chikmagalúr. Till 1875 the head-quarters of Kadúr *táluk*, now absorbed into Banávar *táluk*.

Kafára.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; situated east of the Dahraura river, on the high bank of an ancient channel of the stream. Soil very fertile and drainage good. Population (1869) 2467; in 1881, 4031, of whom 3573 were Hindus and 458 Muhammadans. Land revenue, £341.

Káfiristán.—Tract of country lying between the north-western frontier of India and the Hindu Kúsh Mountains. On the west the country of the Káfirs is bordered by Afghánistán, the boundary line being the Alíshang river; on the east the line of the Kunár river may be taken as the limit. Several descriptions of the tract and its people have been published; and writers like Elphinstone, Burnes, Masson, Raverty, and Lumsden give highly-coloured accounts, based on the tales of Muhammadan tribesmen who occupy the adjoining region. But, as a matter of fact, the country is particularly difficult of access to Muhammadans, for no Káfir is in his own neighbourhood thought to be of any consideration unless he has managed during his life to slay at least one follower of Islám; and until 1883 no European had penetrated Káfiristán. Consequently the statements of Orientals concerning the Síáhposh, who inhabit Káfiristán, have to be accepted for the various theories and descriptions current about a people always regarded by Europeans in a light more or less curious and mysterious.

Some writers assign the origin of the Síáhposh Káfirs to an Arab tribe whose customs closely correspond to those of the Gabars of Persia. Others have wildly conjectured them to be the descendants of the Greek soldiers of Alexander, who were left behind in the country. Lumsden believes them to be aborigines of the Indian plains driven to the mountains they inhabit, as refugees before Moslem fanaticism. The Káfir dialect, however, is said to have no affinity with either Arabic, Persian, or Turkí, but to be allied to Sanskrit; and for this reason among others later writers think it probable that the Káfirs have no single genealogical descent or well-defined tribal divisions like the Arabs or

on all sides, and with whom they are always fighting. Towards the British they are exceedingly well disposed. Slavery exists to a certain extent among them, but the trade in slaves would soon die out if human flesh were not so saleable at Jalálábád, Kunár, Asmar, and Chitrál. Polygamy is rare; mild corporal punishment is inflicted on a wife for adultery, while the male offender is fined so many heads of cattle. The dead are coffined, but never buried. One Supreme Being—Imbra—is universally acknowledged. Priests preside at their temples, in which sacred stones are set up, but to neither priests nor idols is excessive reverence paid. In evil spirits, authors of ill-luck, the Káfirs firmly believe. Their arms are bows and arrows; a few matchlocks have found their way among them from Kábul, but no attempts have been made to imitate them. Wealth is reckoned by heads of cattle. There are 18 chiefs in all, chosen for bravery mainly, but with some regard to hereditary claims.'

Among the ordinary and extraordinary customs pertaining to the Síáhposh Káfirs, and selected now at random from the writings of earlier authors, are the following:—

The Káfirs hold themselves to be firmly bound by an oath. Before breaking a truce, a brace of bullets, or an arrow, is sent as a significant hint of future intentions. When a guest has crossed the threshold of a Káfir's house, the master of the house alone has the privilege of waiting on him; should another inhabitant entice away the stranger a deadly feud will probably ensue. Women go uncovered, and wander where they will: they are not allowed to eat at the same table with the men. Special buildings are set apart in every village for the lying-in of women. Enmities constantly arise among the Káfirs, but the most bitter quarrel may be settled by one of the parties kissing the nipple of his antagonist's breast as being typical of drinking of the milk of friendship; the other party to the quarrel kisses the suitor on the head, and an everlasting friendship is entered into It is said that Káfirs do not sell their children to Muhammadans, but that when in distress they may sell their servant or the child of a neighbour kidnapped for the purpose. Major Biddulph, on the other hand, alleges that sale is frequent, and that the Chitrál ruler annually receives a tribute of children of both sexes. When a Káfir crusade against the adjacent Muhammadans is decided upon, no individual of the expeditionary party either sleeps or eats in his own dwelling, but in whatever other house he happens to be until all the plans of the raid are matured. When the party arrives at the scene where the work is to be done, they separate into companies of two and three, and wait in ambush for the object of attack. When evening falls, they reunite and tell the exploits of the day. Moslem reprisals consist of incursions into the Káfiristán valleys for the purpose of kidnapping the inhabitants.

Bread is the staple article of food; made of wheat, barley, and millet; ground in a handmill, and converted into cakes or bannocks by being kneaded and then baked on an iron dish suspended over a fire. Cattle are slaughtered by severing the head at one blow from the neck. Should more blows of the long, sharp knife be necessary, the carcase is considered impure, and is handed over to the Pariah caste of Barís. Two kinds of Káfir wine are drunk, coloured according to the hue of the grape from which they are pressed. None but children are permitted to touch the vines before a certain season. When the proper period arrives, the entire population set to work to secure the vintage. The Emperor Bábar notes that, 'so prevalent is the use of wine among them, that every Káfir has a "khig" or leathern bottle of wine about his neck.' 'They drink wine,' Bábar adds, 'instead of water.'

No complete investigation has been made by any European of the country of the Káfirs. The safest way of entering their territory is to obtain beforehand the promise of some Káfir as security. If this precaution be adopted, the stranger may travel without apprehension; otherwise he is almost certain to be attacked. Pedlars, passed into the country by one of the Káfir inhabitants, make annual visits to the Síáhposh valleys, distributing the merchandise which they have purchased in Pesháwar.

Káfirkot.—Ruins in Dera Ismáil Khán District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 30′ 15″ N., long. 71° 22′ 45″ E. Those known as Til Káfirkot or Rájá-sír-kot are situated a few miles to the south of the point where the Kuram river joins the Indus, upon a spur of the KHISOR HILLS, and consist of immense blocks of smoothly chiselled stone, with remains of Hindu temples or sanctuaries. The carvings represent idols and other designs, and retain their freshness to a considerable degree. The ruin specially known as Káfirkot lies on the left bank of the Indus, and is similar in character to the others, but smaller and less perfectly preserved. For full details, see General Cunningham's *Archæological Survey Report*, vol. xiv. p. 254.

Kágal.—Native State, subordinate to Kolhápur, under the South Maráthá Political Agency, Bombay Presidency. Watered by the Dudhgangá and Vedgangá rivers. Area, 129 square miles. Population (1881) 49,064. Annual gross revenue, £21,196. Pays a yearly tribute of £200 to Kolhápur, of which it is one of the most important feudatories. The present chief (1882), Jáya Singh Ráo, Ghátge Sarjaráo Wazárat Mááb, a Hindu of the Maráthá caste, is grandson by adoption of Hindu Ráo, who held a leading position at Gwalior eighty years ago, and whose father (Sakhárám Ráo), by means of his influence at the court of Sindhia, acquired in 1800 a grant of Kágal from the Kolhápur chief. He administers his own estate, and has been made Regent of Kolhápur, with a salute of 9 guns, so long as he

holds that office. His family has no *sanad* authorizing adoption; succession follows the rule of primogeniture. Retinue, 41 armed police and militia; schools, 10, with (1882) 697 pupils.

Kágal.—Chief town of Kágal State, Kolhápur, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 34′ N., long. 74° 20′ 30″ E.; 10 miles south-east of Kolhápur. Population (1881) 6371, namely, Hindus, 5414; Muhammadans, 588; Jains, 368; 'others,' 1.

Kágán.—Mountain valley in Hazárá District, Punjab, penetrating far into the heart of the Himálayan system, and surrounded by Kashmír territory on every side except the south. Area, 800 square miles; 60 miles in length, with an average breadth of 15 miles. Lofty ranges shut it in on either hand, their summits rising to a height of nearly 17,000 feet. Transverse spurs intersect the interior; and a thin population inhabit the glen. The Kágán range comprises 22 *rakhs* or forest and grazing reserves, with an area varying from 116 acres to 8776 acres, the total area of which is 87,487 acres, or 89.8 square miles. Total area of reserved and unreserved forest, 457 square miles. The rights of cutting grass and grazing cattle are let out annually. The Government Forest Department only fells timber, which is launched into the river Kunhár, caught at the different timber depôts, and rafted to Jehlam, where it is sold by the Department. Through a narrow central gorge the river Kunhár forces its way to join the Jehlam (Jhelum), after draining the entire valley. The Kágán valley forms the northernmost extension of British India, and stretches like an intrusive arm far up into the mountain region. Its open mouth turns towards the main body of Hazárá District and the Murree (Marri) Hills. The inhabitants consist almost entirely of Muhammadan Swátis and Gujárs. Kágán village is situated in lat. 34° 46′ 45″ N., long. 75° 34′ 15″ E.

Kahan (or *Gahan*).—River or torrent in Jehlam (Jhelum) District, Punjab; rises in the Salt Range, on the southern side of its northern spur, and, running nearly due east, passes through the southern or Tilla spur near Rohtás, falling into the Jehlam about [illegible] miles above Jehlam city.

Kahlgáon.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal.—*See* COLGONG.

Kahlúr (*Biláspur*).—One of the Simla Hill States under the political superintendence of the Punjab Government, lying between 31° 12′ 30″ and 31° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 76° 26′ and 76° 58′ E. long. Area 448 square miles, with 1073 villages and 9626 houses; number of families, 18,600. Total population (1881) 86,546, namely, males 47,133, and females 39,413; average density, 189 persons per square mile. Hindus number 85,280; Muhammadans, 1263; and Sikhs, 3. The Gurkhás, who had overrun the country at the beginning of the present century, were driven out by the British in 1815, and the Rájá was reinstated in his possessions of Biláspur. In 1847–48, when

the Punjab was conquered, the Rájá was confirmed in possession of the territory of Kahlúr, including part of a tract on the right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), which he had previously held on terms of allegiance and payment of tribute to the Sikhs. The British Government waved its right to tribute, but required the Rájá to abolish transit duties in his dominions. Subsequently, about 1865, the *pargana* of Basse Bachertu was given up to the Rájá, on condition of an annual payment of £800 to the British Government. In acknowledgment of his services during the Mutiny, the Rájá received a dress of honour of the value of £500, and a salute of 7 guns, since increased to 11 guns. Rájá Hira Chánd, a Rájput by caste, was born about 1835, and after a reign of 32 years, died in October 1882, on his way back to his own territory after a visit to Simla. He was succeeded by his son Amar Chánd, the present Rájá (1883). Revenue about £8600. Principal products—grain, opium, and ginger. Sentences of death passed by the Rájá require the confirmation of the Superintendent of the Hill States; other punishments are awarded by the Rájá on his own authority.

Kahnuwan.—Swampy lake (*jhil*) in Gurdáspur *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab; lying south-east of Gurdáspur town, below the high bank of the Beas (Biás), and evidently marking an ancient course of that river. It is 9 miles in length, by 2000 feet in width; depth from 12 to 20 feet in the deepest parts. In the centre stands a pavilion, erected by Mahárájá Sher Singh. Rice and *singhára*, or water nut (Trapa bispinosa), are cultivated in the shallows. A dam, 13 miles in length, erected to prevent flooding, has saved large portions of the surrounding country from inundation. Steps have been taken with success for draining the swampy area, by which 1100 acres of marsh land have already been reclaimed, and the process still continues at the rate of about 150 acres yearly. The lake formerly swelled to much larger dimensions, but the dam now confines the water of the Beas to a narrower bed.

Kahror (*Karor*).—Town and municipality in Mailsi *tahsíl*, Multán (Mooltan) District, Punjab. Lat. 29° 37′ N., long. 71° 57′ 41″ E. Situated on an old bed of the Beas (Biás), known as the Bhatiári *nála*, about 8 miles from the present right bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Ancient town, the legendary scene of Vikramáditya's victory over the Saka or Scythian invaders in the 1st century B.C. Captured by Chach after the fall of Multán in the 7th century. Population (1868) 5069; in 1881, 4804, namely, Hindus, 2967; Muhammadans, 1832; and Sikhs, 5: number of houses, 848. Municipal income (1881–82), £358, nearly all derived from octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6d. per head. The town, which is built on an undulating site, consists chiefly of brick houses. Kahror is the commercial centre

of the southern half of Multán District, and has a fine broad *bázár* running east and west. It contains two schools, police station, dispensary, and rest-house.

Kahúta.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying between 33° 19′ and 33° 47′ N. lat., and between 73° 18′ and 73° 41′ E. long.; partly in the tract known as the Murree (Marri) Hills. The Narh Mountain, rising to a height of 6000 feet, is situated in the north-east corner of the *tahsíl.* The northern and eastern tracts are mountainous, the remainder resembles the plain *tahsíls* in character. Area, 434 square miles. Population (1881) 87,210, namely, males 46,188, and females 41,022; average density of population, 201 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 77,563; Hindus, 6201, Sikhs, 3364; and 'others,' 82. Number of houses, 13,622; families, 21,308. Of the 226 villages in the *tahsíl,* 185 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 24 from five hundred to a thousand; 12 from one to two thousand, and 5 from two to five thousand. The average annual area under the principal crops for the five years ending 1881–82 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 24,194 acres; *bájra,* 19,945 acres; Indian corn, 10,945 acres; *moth,* 3499 acres; barley, 2064 acres; and cotton, 3209 acres. The revenue of the *tahsíl* in 1882–83 was £6896. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár* and a *munsif,* who preside over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 606 men; rural police or village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 1057.

Kaidala (*'The Restored Hand'*).—Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore State, Southern India; situated 3 miles south of Túmkúr town. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 77° 8′ E. Population (1881) 454. Said to have been formerly called Kridápura, and the capital of a powerful State; also regarded as the birthplace of Jakanáchári, the great architect and sculptor, to whom all the temple carving in Mysore is attributed. The two temples at Kaidala, now in ruins, belong to the period of the Ballála dynasty (10th to 14th centuries). Tradition relates that Jakanáchári, on being informed that there was a defect in one of the images of the Chennakesava temple in course of construction at Belúr, vowed to cut off his right hand should any blemish be found. A cavity was discovered, and he kept his vow. Subsequently he was directed in a vision to dedicate a temple to the god Kesava in Kridápura, his native place. No sooner was this temple completed than his hand was restored, and in commemoration of this incident the village has ever since been called Kaidala.

Kail.—Ancient port in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KAYAL.

Kailang (*Kilang, Kyelang*).—Village in the Láhul Sub-division of

Kángra District, Punjab; situated in lat. 32° 34′ 15″ N., and long. 77° 4′ E., on the main trade route between the Rohtang and Bára Lácha Passes, on the right bank of the river Bhága, about 4 miles above its junction with the Chandra. A station of the Moravian Mission has been established in the village for several years past, and a post-office is maintained during the summer months. A Government school was formerly managed by the missionaries, but they have now entirely ceased their connection with it, in consequence of the hostile feeling which it excited in the minds of the natives.

Kailás.—A sacred mountain of the Hindus in the inner Himálayas, near the source of the Indus and Sutlej, beyond British territory. Height, 20,226 feet. Kailás lies to the north-west of the Mánasarowar Lake in Tibet, and is famous in Sanskrit literature as Siva's paradise. Its distance, however, prevents it from being largely resorted to by pilgrims; although it is still a favourite retreat of Hindu hermits, who like to end their days on Kailás.—*See* article MANASAROWAR.

Kailáshahr.—Sub-division of Hill Tipperah State, Bengal. Population (1881) 22,238, namely, males 12,060, and females 10,178. Hindus number 3452; Muhammadans, 4348; Christians, 3; and aboriginal tribes, 14,435.

Kailáshahr.—Town and head-quarters of Kailáshahr Sub-division, in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal. Prettily situated at the foot of a low range of hills, in lat. 24° 19′ 10″ N., long. 92° 2′ 15″ E. The town contains a magistrate's and *munsif's* court, jail, *bázár*, dispensary, and school. A military guard is stationed at Cherakutí, two miles from the town.

Kailwárá.—Town in the Native State of Udaipúr (Oodeypore), Rájputána. Kailwárá lies in the heart of the Aravalli mountains, once the great refuge of the Rájputs, and is situated below the hill fort of Kumalgarh, on the western frontier of the State. It was to Kailwárá that Ráná Ajeysi, the survivor of the twelve Rájput princes, eleven of whom sacrificed themselves to save the royal line of Chittur, is said to have escaped when the Pathán Alá-ud-dín sacked that city.

Káimahrá.—Village in Kheri District, Oudh; situated on the road from Lakhimpur *viâ* Muhamdi to Sháhjahánpur, about 1½ mile east of the Jamwári river, and surrounded on all sides by groves of mango trees. The property of the Káimahrá *tálukdár*, and the head-quarters of his estate. Population (1881) 1569, namely, Hindus, 1293, and Muhammadans, 276. Land revenue, £132. Large artificial tank, 4 Hindu temples, and 10 mosques. Four sugar manufactories, good market, and vernacular school.

Káimganj.—North-western *tahsíl* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the southern bank of the Ganges, and

comprising the *parganás* of Kampil and Shamsábád west. The *tahsíl* is divided into an upland (*bángar*) and a lowland (*tarái*) tract. The first and largest division consists of a plateau occupying the whole area west and south of the old Ganges cliff, and watered by the Bagár river. On either bank of the stream stretches a wide expanse of sandy land (*bhúr*), showing in *parganá* Kampil some of the worst soil of its class in the District. North of this tract is a belt of fine yellowish loam, tilled by Kurmis, and famous for its sugar-cane cultivation, and its numerous and durable unbricked wells. South of the sandy tract extends a poorer loam, interspersed with saline plains, containing much uncultivable soil, *dhák* jungle, and many lagoons and flooded spaces of rice land (*jhabar*). The lowlands, which skirt the present course of the Ganges, occupy nearly half of the whole *tahsíl*, and consist of a flat alluvial tract, long since deserted by the Ganges, and liable to inundations from channels of the river. The belt of land skirting the river itself, some miles in breadth, is subject to almost yearly floods, and bears as a rule only a spring crop. An autumn crop is indeed sown, on the chance of the year being a dry one, but the floods usually sweep from the fields all hope of an autumn harvest. This tract is succeeded by a sandy and comparatively sterile belt, beyond which, below the cliff marking the old bank of the Ganges, runs a belt of fine loam about half a mile in breadth. The principal crops are wheat, barley, gram, *joár*, *bájra*, sugar-cane, and cotton. Area of the *tahsíl*, 371 square miles, of which about 240 square miles are returned as under cultivation. The population of the *tahsíl*, in common with that of the District as a whole (*see* FARUKHABAD DISTRICT), has decreased of late years from 182,873 in 1872, to 167,156 in 1881. In the latter year, the males numbered 88,779, and the females 78,377. Hindus numbered 144,011; Muhammadans, 22,998; Jains, 136; and 'others,' 11. Land revenue, £21,964; total Government revenue, £25,464; rental paid by cultivators, £39,962. The *tahsíl* contains 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 4 police circles (*thánás*); strength of regular police, 42 men; besides 444 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*).

Káimganj.—Town in Kampil *parganá*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Káimganj *tahsíl*. Situated in lat. 27° 33′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 23′ 45″ E., on the high cliff which marks the former bed of the Ganges, about a mile south of the Burhgangá river. It is the terminus of a metalled road from Fatehgarh, the head-quarters of the District, 22 miles to the south-east. Káimganj is a long and narrow town, consisting chiefly of one wide metalled *bázár*, measuring about a mile from east to west, from which branch many narrow unmetalled lanes. It was founded in 1713 by M...
the first Nawáb of Farukhábád, who named it after his ...

has always been a stronghold of Patháns. Many Patháns hold small plots of land around the town, while other Pathán townsmen have taken military service under the British Government, or in Native States. During the Mutiny in 1858, the *tahsíli* was ineffectually besieged for a short time by a band of fugitive insurgents from Kalpi. The population of the town, which was 8650 in 1865, had risen to 10,323 in 1872, and to 10,443 in 1881. In the latter year, Hindus numbered 6763; Muhammadans, 3546; Jains, 124; and Christians, 10. Area of town site, 578 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax realized £223 in 1878-79. Fields yielding three crops annually extend up to the very walls of the houses, and Káimganj is noted for its mangoes, tobacco, and potatoes. It is also a prosperous commercial town, and has superseded Shamsábád as the chief place of trade on the road from Farukhábád to Budáun. Several kinds of cloth are manufactured, one for turbans, another for the fine apparel of women, and a third for stronger and coarser garments. The profession and habits of its Pathán population fostered in former times a manufacture of swords and matchlocks, which has now dwindled down to a trade in ordinary knives and betel-nut cutters. Besides the ordinary *tahsíli* courts and offices, the town contains a first-class police station, imperial post-office, English school, dispensary, *sarái* (native inn), and public garden.

Káimur.—The eastern but detached portions of the Vindhyan range, commencing near Katángi in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District of the Central Provinces, and running through the State of Rewá and Sháhábád District of Bengal, dividing the valley of the Tons from that of the Son (Soane). In the Central Provinces, this range almost disappears in places, and never attains many hundred feet above the plain; but in Sháhábád District it rises precipitously to a height of about 1500 feet above sea-level, the summit forming a long table-land, with a series of saucer-shaped valleys, each a few miles in diameter, containing a deposit of rich vegetable mould in the centre, and producing the finest crops. The formation is primitive sandstone, intermixed with schistose limestone. The ruined fortress of Rohtás is situated on these hills. Several *gháts* or passes lead to the summit, some of which are practicable for beasts of burden. The Káimur range commences in lat. 24° 31′ 30″ N., and long. 83° 24′ E., within the Central Provinces, and occupies more or less continuously the great hilly area which extends from that point to lat. 25° N., and long. 84° 3′ 30″ E., within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal.

Kaira (*Kheda*).—District in the Northern Division of Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lies between 22° 26′ and 23° 6′ N. lat., and between 72° 33′ and 73° 21′ E. long. Bounded on the north by

Ahmadábád District, Mahi Kántha, and the small State of Bálásinor in the District of Rewá Kántha; on the west by Ahmadábád District and the Native State of Cambay; on the south and east by the river Mahi and the Gáekwár's territory (Baroda). The breadth of the District varies from 25 to 40 miles. Area, 1609 square miles; population (1881) 804,800 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Excepting a small corner of hilly ground near its northern boundary, and in the south-east and south, where the land along the Mahi is furrowed into deep ravines, the District of Kaira forms one unbroken plain sloping gently towards the south-west. The north and north-east portions are dotted with patches of rich rice land, broken by untilled tracts of low brushwood. The centre of the District, called the *charotar* or goodly land, is very fertile and highly cultivated; the luxuriant fields are surrounded by high-growing hedges, and the whole country is clothed with clusters of large shapely trees. Westwards, this belt of rich vegetation passes into a bare though well-cultivated tract of rice land, growing more barren and open to the south till it reaches the maritime belt, whitened by a salt-like crust, on the Gulf of Cambay.

Rivers.—The Mahi, the largest river of Kaira, and the third in importance of the Gujarát rivers, flows for nearly a hundred miles along the east, south-east, and south boundary of the District. Its deeply cut bed, sandbanks, and scanty summer channel, unfit it for either irrigation or navigation. This river is specially sacred to the Kolís, who believe that no guilty person can succeed in swallowing its waters. Its banks were formerly inhabited by predatory tribes, and there is a Kolí saying that 'when the Mahi is crossed, there is safety.' One hundred miles of the course of the Mahi lie within or border on Kaira District. This hundred miles may be divided into three sections, first a stretch of forty miles over a rough and rocky bed, then ten miles of a still stream with a sandy bed, and forty-five miles of a tidal river. The fords in the District are at Kávi, Dehván, Gajna, Khánpur, and Ometa. At Verákhándi, the limit of the flow of the tidal wave, the bed is in the dry season 500 yards wide, the stream 120 yards, and the average depth 1½ feet. A small 'bore' rises in the estuary at springs and dashes itself on the Dehván. The Sábarmati, the fourth largest river in Gujarát, flows for 14 miles along the western boundary, and is much used for irrigation. The Shedhi, being charged with soda, is not adapted for irrigation. The Khári, one of five smaller streams, waters a large area by means of canals and sluices, but fails at the end of the rice season, that is to say, about November. Except in two small tracts in the north-east and south-west of the District, where the land is saturated with salt, the supply from wells, reservoirs, and rivers is plentiful. Number of wells in

1876, 9341; water-lifts, 531; ponds, 4600; besides 9 canals and dams.

Minerals.—Iron-ore was at one time worked in the neighbourhood of Kapadwanj. In the bed of the Májam river, about 15 miles from Kapadwanj, are found varieties of agate and moss stone. The bed of the Mahi contains masses and boulders of trap; while on its upper portion, on the Bálásinor frontier, rock is plentiful, including trap, with occasional limestone, quartz, and granite. At Lasundra, about 24 miles from the Nariád railway station, and about 12 miles from the Dakor railway station, springs of hot water rise to the surface in ten or twelve cisterns, the hottest having a temperature of 115° F. The water, slightly sulphurous, is thought to be useful for the cure of skin diseases. The place is held sacred by the Hindus, and is called Rám Kshetra, as Rámchandra, the hero of the *Rámáyana*, performed here the *shrádh* ceremonies for the soul of his father.

Wild Animals.—Tigers and leopards, a few years ago always to be found in the bed of the Mahi, are now rarely heard of, owing to the spread of tillage and their pursuit by European sportsmen. Hyænas, jackals, foxes, wild hog, antelope, gazelle, and hares are common. Of game birds, besides many varieties of duck, snipe and quail abound; while geese, bustard, partridge, quail, and florican may occasionally be shot. Poisonous snakes are common. A reward of from 1s. 6d. to 6d. is paid for killing a cobra, and from 1s. to 3d. for killing other kinds. In 1877, 19 persons died from snake-bite. *Máhsír* and other fresh-water fish are caught in the waters of the most considerable rivers.

History.—Kaira District is made up partly of lands acquired from the Peshwá in 1802, by the treaty of Bassein, partly of territory transferred by the Gáekwár of Baroda in 1803 and 1817. Rájputs reigned in Kaira from 746 to 1290. The most celebrated dynasty was the Anhilwárá. At the end of the 14th century Kaira passed to the Muhammadan kings of Ahmadábád, and in 1573 was transferred to the Mughals. In 1720, the Maráthás appeared; and from that time to the fall of Ahmadábád in 1753, the District was the scene of perpetual struggles between the Maráthás and the Muhammadan viceroys. The Maráthás were victorious, and in 1753 the District was shared between the Peshwá and his lieutenant the Gáekwár.

Part of the lands of the District came into British possession in 1803, and the rest in 1817. Under the terms of the treaty of Bassein (31st December 1802), the Nápád group of villages was handed over by the Peshwá. In 1803, for the maintenance of troops supplied by the British Government, the Gáekwár ceded Nadiád, Mátar, and Mahudha, as well as the fort and town of Kaira. Again, by treaty dated 6th November 1817, to provide for the payment of additional troops, the Gáekwár ceded Mehmadábád, Alína, Thásra, Antroli, and

half of the town and district of Petlád. At the same time, Kapadwanj and Bhálaj were received in exchange for the district of Bijápur in North Gujarát.

The territories acquired in 1803, together with Dholka, Dhandhuka, Ranpur, and Gogha, which now form part of Ahmadábád District, remained in charge of the Resident at Baroda from the date of their cession till May 1805. During this time a European assistant and native officers administered, according to local usage, the police and justice of the country. In 1805, a Collector was appointed, with jurisdiction over the ceded tracts, both those to the north of the Mahi and those to the west of the Gulf of Cambay. In the same year the town of KAIRA (*q.v.*) was selected as a large military station.

The increase in the British possessions consequent on the treaty of November 1817 necessitated fresh administrative arrangements. The territory north of the Mahi was, from the 1st January 1818, divided into the two Districts of Kaira and Ahmadábád. In 1830, Kapadwanj was included in Ahmadábád, and Kaira reduced to a Sub-Collectorate under the principal Collector of Ahmadábád. In 1833, Ahmadábád and Kaira were again separated. Since then, more than once, villages have been moved from one District to the other, and the original irregular groups and collections of villages have been gradually consolidated into seven Sub-divisions.

Population.—In 1846, the population of the District was returned at 566,513, or 354 to the square mile. By 1872 it had risen to 782,733 persons, residing in 591 villages and 218,596 houses; density per square mile, 489. This latter density indicated a pressure of population higher at the time than in any other part of the Bombay Presidency.

By the Census of February 17, 1881, the population of the District was returned at 804,800; area, 1609 square miles; density of population, 500 to the square mile. The increase of population since 1872 has been nearly three per cent., and the District is still the most densely peopled part of the Presidency, outside the city of Bombay. The number of towns in the District was in 1881 returned at 10; villages, 571; occupied houses, 191,282; unoccupied houses, 51,396. Males numbered 426,781; females, 378,019; proportion of males, 53 per cent. In 1881, there was a town or village to each 2·77 square miles; houses to the square mile, 150; persons per occupied house, 4·2.

Of the 581 towns and villages in the District in 1881, 38 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 124 from two to five hundred; 158 from five hundred to one thousand; 155 from one to two thousand; 61 from two to three thousand; 30 from three to five thousand; 10 from five to ten thousand; 4 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 from twenty thousand to fifty thousand.

some patron's house, remaining in one place several months, and during their stay they note down the births, marriages, and deaths that have happened in the family since the last visit. These particulars are carried away and duly recorded on the return to Kaira.

Of the Musalmán population, about one-third, under the name of Sayyids, Shaikhs, Patháns, and Mughals, represent the foreign conquerors of Gujarát. The remainder, called Momnás, Borahs, Tais, and Ghánchís, are the descendants of Hindus converted to Islám under the Ahmadábád kings. Musalmáns of the first class, employed chiefly as cultivators, or in Government service as police and messengers, are for the most part poor. Musalmáns of the second class, artisans, chiefly weavers and oil-pressers, are hard-working and well-to-do.

The aggregate urban population of the District is 121,801, or 15 per cent. of the total population.

Agriculture, the most important industry of the District, supports 546,978 persons, or 68 per cent. of the total population. The soils belong to four classes—light, medium, black, and alluvial, with subordinate varieties. The alluvial or *bátha* land is chiefly found near the Vátrak river, and is a rich garden soil. In 1880–81, 371,793 acres, or 76·99 per cent. of the Government cultivable land, were taken up for tillage, and 19,421 acres were fallow or under grass. Grain crops occupied 304,253 acres, or 81·83 per cent.; pulses, 31,199 acres, or 8·39 per cent.; oil-seeds, 5348 acres, or 1·43 per cent.; fibres, 4662 acres, or 1·24 per cent., of which 4424 acres were under cotton; miscellaneous crops, 17,640 acres, or 4·74 per cent, of which 11,754 acres were under tobacco. Spiked millet, *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), the staple grain crop, occupied 104,920 acres in 1881–82, or 27·4 per cent. of the total area (382,425 acres) under cultivation in that year. In 1881–82, sugar-cane covered 1209 acres; indigo, 185 acres; and other dye-stuffs, 2626 acres. In the same year the agricultural stock of the District consisted of—bullocks, 136,235; cows, 49,345; buffaloes, 175,946; horses, 1948; asses, 5894; sheep and goats, 42,700; ploughs, 60,513; carts, 26,669.

The prices of agricultural produce in 1881–82 per *maund* of 80 lbs. ranged as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 3d.; barley, 2s. 9½d.; rice (best), 8s. 8d.; rice (common), 5s. 5d.; *bájra*, 4s. 6d.; *joár*, 3s. 8d.; gram, 2s.; salt, 6s. 2d.; flour, 6s. 6d.; *dál*, 4s. 5d.; firewood, 1s.; *ghí*, £3. The average wages earned in Kaira District are from 9d. to 1s. per diem for skilled, and 3d. to 4½d. per diem for unskilled labour. Carts may be hired at 2s. per diem; asses at from 3d. to 4½d.

The finest tobacco in Western India is grown in Kaira; but though skilful in rearing the plant, the cultivators know nothing of its preparation for the European market. Two varieties of tobacco are grown, the *talabdi*, or local plant, and the K

Classified according to occupation, the males were divided into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 8431; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 2578; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 5547; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 190,826; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 43,115; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 176,284.

Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881, 383,207 male and 337,659 female Hindus; total, 720,866, or 89·6 per cent. of the total population. Muhammadans numbered 72,954, or 9·1 per cent.; Christians, 1041; Jains, 9603; Pársís, 131; Jews, 7; aboriginal tribes and 'others,' 198. Under the term Hindu are included the following caste sub-divisions:—Bráhmans, 41,499; Rájputs, 25,973; Chamárs, 10,874; Darjís, 2256; Dhobís (washermen), 1035; Hajjáms (barbers), 10,859; Kunbís (agriculturists), 143,151; Kolís (agriculturists), 279,344; Kumbhars, 8982; Lohánas, 3196; Lohárs (blacksmiths), 5964; Málís (gardeners), 1106; Mahars or Dhers, 42,800; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 2710; Sutars, 7807; Telís (oilmen), 83; Banjárís, 113; and 'other Hindus,' 133,114. The aboriginal tribes are mostly (187) Bhíls. The Muhammadans include Patháns, 8703; Sayyids, 2953; Shaikhs, 6482; and Sindhís, 270.

Among Hindus, the most important classes are the Lewa and Kadwa Kunbís, numbering 142,774; they are the best farmers in the District, and a sober, peaceable, and industrious race. The Kunbís of certain villages are held in honour, as descended from the leading men among the original settlers in Gujarát. The Rájputs, with the exception of a few who with the title of Thákur still retain landed estates, have sunk into the mass of ordinary peasant proprietors. The Kolís number 279,340, or 34·7 per cent. of the entire population. Idle and turbulent under native rule, they are now quiet, hard-working, and prosperous. Among Hindu low castes, the Dhers or Mahars (42,800) are distinguished for industry and good behaviour. They formerly lived in comfort by weaving coarse cotton cloth, but the competition of the Bombay and local steam mills is now shutting them out of the market.

The Bháts or Bárots, Rájput bards and genealogists, have their head-quarters in Kaira District. Many of the caste, formerly of much sanctity and importance, have had to turn themselves to ordinary pastoral occupations; but some remain who travel to distant parts of India. Their different places of call are visited in order, generally at two or three years' interval. At each station they claim hospitality from castes which claim a Rájput descent. They are entertained in

some patron's house, remaining in one place several months, and during their stay they note down the births, marriages, and deaths that have happened in the family since the last visit. These particulars are carried away and duly recorded on the return to Kaira.

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The prices of agricultural produce in 1881–82 per maund of 80 lbs. ranged as follows:—Wheat, [illegible]; barley, [illegible]; rice (best), [illegible]; rice (common), [illegible]; *bájra*, [illegible]; *jowár*, [illegible]; gram, [illegible]; salt, [illegible]; [illegible]. The average wages earned in Kaira District are from [illegible] to [illegible] per diem for skilled, and [illegible] to [illegible] per diem for unskilled labour. Carts may be hired at [illegible] per diem; [illegible].

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introduced from Khándesh. An irrigated field yields twice as large a tobacco crop as a dry one. About the beginning of July, as soon as the first rain has fallen, the seed is sown on a well-prepared plot of ground, and after about a month and a half the seedlings are ready for transplantation. The field is scored in squares by a heavy, long-toothed rake, and at each point of intersection a seedling is set. The plant takes about five and a half months to ripen. As soon as it is ready, it is carefully examined, and divided into two classes, *kálio* and *jardo;* the *kálio* is cut down, stalk and all, and laid out to dry; the *jardo* is left a little longer, and then the leaves are stripped off the stem. The *kálio* is used for hookahs and for snuff; the *jardo* for chewing and smoking in cigarettes and pipes. The caterpillar is the chief enemy of the plant. Tobacco-growing is a costly process, and can only be undertaken by substantial cultivators. In 1876, it was calculated that the cost of rearing an acre of plant was £27, and the profit £10, 15s.

Cotton is grown only from the local plant, and occupies every seventh furrow in fields sown with ordinary grain crops. Several attempts have been made to improve the Kaira cotton, but without success. Indigo was once one of the chief exports from Gujarát, but in 1827 it had almost ceased to be produced. An attempt to encourage the growth in Kaira later on was attended with failure. A Government silk garden was started in 1837, but was closed in 1847. Not only the strictly agricultural classes, Kunbís, Kolís, and Musalmáns, but the whole population, including Bráhmans and men of all castes, engage in agriculture.

Natural Calamities.—A severe famine took place in 1791–92—rain fell only once that year; in 1813–14, there were only two showers of rain throughout the year; in 1825, the later rains failed, and remissions of land revenue to the amount of £16,198 were granted. On the other hand, the period 1814–22 was marked by heavy floods and rainfall that caused much damage to the country. In 1834, locusts ate up the crops, and remissions amounting to £19,655 were sanctioned. In 1837, 1868, and 1871, disastrous storms swept over the District. During the forty years 1836–1876, though the rainfall has at times been scanty and the crops have failed, no season of famine or even of general scarcity has occurred in Kaira District. Owing to the scanty rainfall in 1877 (19·13 inches), there was a partial failure of crops, and the poorer people, especially in the Kapadwanj and Thásra Subdivisions in the north-east, suffered some distress, which, however, did not leave behind serious results.

Land Tenures.—In 1803, when Kaira was ceded to the British, the District afforded examples of various forms of administration. In the centre were three kinds of villages, *rásti*, or peaceable, *mehwás*, or

refractory, and an intermediate class of *rásti-mehwás* villages. The refractory villages were occupied by the turbulent descendants of the Rájput and Kolí warriors. Here Kolí *thákurs* or chiefs administered despotically their little clusters of beehive-looking huts. Revenue was stipulated for, but seldom paid. The peaceable villages were mostly grants of Government to those who had done some public service. The most important Muhammadan grants were called *máliks*, and were held rent-free. Internal administration was the concern of the village community. There were four forms of village government, the commonest being that by which the village head-man engaged annually for the payment of a certain sum to Government The profits of a good year, under this the most simple and general system employed under the Peshwá, went to the head-man on the other hand, the head-man had to bear any loss from failure of crop or short tillage. Above the head-man or *pátel* were the revenue-farmers (*kamávisdár*), who fixed the village contributions, and below the head-men were the cultivators and coparceners of the village. A class quite apart, called *mano-tidárs*, or money-lenders, arose as sureties for the payment of the revenue. This short statement furnishes an outline of the Maráthá revenue system. It has the merit of simplicity, and was calculated to ensure the recovery of revenue. At the same time it is clear that it was extremely liable to abuses and suffering to the cultivating masses.

When the District was taken over by the British in 1803, the system was continued with but small modification until 1862. In that year the revenue survey system, which deals directly with individual cultivators, was introduced. The financial result of the survey assessment was an increase over the whole District of 11 per cent. in the Government land revenue demand. Of the 559 Government villages, 90 are held on the *narvádári* tenure. The peculiarity of this holding is, that it involves joint responsibility for the payment of the Government revenue. In *narvádári* villages, the *pattidárs* or sharers belong to the Kunbí caste, and on account of being *narvádárs* hold a high position among their fellows, being the descendants of the old proprietary cultivators. This tenure has been carefully preserved by Act v. of 1862 of the Bombay Government, but the land-tax is levied at survey rates on the whole arable land. Of late there have been instances of the community applying to change their special tenure for that under the Survey Act. The villages on the banks of the river Mahí, held on the *mehwási* tenure, pay their revenue in a lump sum. A clan of Musalmán yeomen, known as the Máliks, have for nearly 400 years held [illegible]7 villages on a special tenure.

Trade.—Exports—grain, tobacco, butter, oil, and the petals of the *mahuá* flower; imports—piece-goods, grocery, [illegible] and [illegible]

Kaira is particularly noted for its *ghí* or clarified butter, the export of which is calculated to benefit the District to the extent of £80,000 annually. The *ghí* when made is forced into large leather bottles holding from 60 to 200 lbs. The opening of steam factories at Ahmadábád and of the Kaira railway centre of Nadiád has greatly reduced the demand for handspun cotton, once a staple. The produce of the Bombay and Gujarát weaving mills now threatens to destroy the demand both for native handiwork and for European piece-goods. The water of the District is thought to be especially good for dyeing purposes; its calico prints are sought after in regions so distant as Siam. Soap and glass are manufactured at Kapadwanj, and a steam spinning and weaving mill has recently been established at Nadiád, with 12,704 spindles. Considerable quantities of coarse cloth for home consumption are woven in handlooms by the lower castes of Hindus. In the larger towns, calico printing is carried on by a class known as Bhávsárs or Chhipiás. There were no made roads of any kind, except one mile, in the District in 1844. About 72 miles of the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway now run through the middle of the District; and 195 miles of road have during the past thirteen years been constructed or re-made. A new road is being made from the rice-producing villages on the Khári canals, to Barájri station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway. There are 10 rest-houses for travellers in the District, built since 1869 at a cost to local funds of £6191. Two ferries ply across the Mahi. There are 13 post-offices in the District. Letter-boxes are placed in most villages. Money-lending is chiefly in the hands of the Baniyá, Sáráwak, and Sonar, or jeweller, castes. Rates of interest vary, according to the credit of the borrower, from 6 to 18 per cent. per annum, rising in the case of poor cultivators and labourers to 25 per cent. In Kaira there are no guilds for trade purposes such as are found in Ahmadábád, and the system of apprenticeship is not known.

Administration.—The total revenue of Kaira, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted in 1882-83 to £231,045, or, on a population of 804,800, an incidence per head of 5s. 7½d. The land-tax forms the great source of revenue, amounting (1882–83) to £197,316; other large items are stamps and local funds (£33,277). The District is distributed for administrative purposes into 7 Sub-divisions (namely, Kapadwanj, Thásra, Mehmadábád, Nadiád, Mátar, Anand, and Borsad); and contains five municipal towns, with an aggregate population of 71,330—viz. NADIAD, population (1881) 28,304; KAPADWANJ, 14,442; KAIRA, 12,640; MEHMADABAD, 8173; DAKOR, 7771. The total municipal receipts amounted in 1882–83 to £5341, and the incidence of municipal taxation varied from 5½d. to 2s. 9d. per head. Other towns of importance are Umreth (14,643), Borsad (12,228), Mahuda (9440),

Mátar (4889), and Anand (9271). The revenue administration of the District is conducted by a Collector and three Assistants, of whom one is a covenanted civilian; for judicial purposes, Kaira is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Ahmadábád. There are 5 civil courts, the yearly number of suits decided being about 11,000; 19 officers administer criminal justice. The regular police (1882-83) consists of 722 officers and men, being 1 man to every 2·2 square miles and to each 1116 inhabitants, costing £12,171, equal to £7, 11s. 3½d. per square mile and 3¾d. per head of the population; average annual pay per man, £10. Number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, 2108, being 1 to every 381 of the population. In 1880, the daily average prison population was 166, including 9 females; the total cost of the jail was £964, or £5, 16s. 3¾d. per prisoner; cash profit on manufactures, £85, 14s., or 10s. per effective prisoner; death-rate, 14 per thousand. There was 1 prisoner in jail to every 4850 of the District population.

Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56, there were only 7 schools, attended by 1036 pupils; by 1876-77, the number of schools had risen to 189, and of pupils to 14,720, or an average of 1 school to every 3 villages. In 1882-83, the number of schools was 220, with 18,372 pupils, or 2·28 per cent of the total population. Kaira District has a public library and twelve reading-rooms; and publishes two vernacular newspapers.

Medical Aspects.—The average rainfall during the five years ending 1876 was 30 inches. To Europeans the climate is trying. From November to March the air is pleasant and bracing. By the people of the District, the *charotar* or central portion is considered healthy. Cholera is rare. The temperature varies between 54° F. in January and 104° in May. Fever of a malarious type is the prevailing disease. In 1881-82, seven dispensaries afforded medical relief to 998 in-door and 74,023 out-door patients, and 19,500 persons were vaccinated. Number of births (1882-83), 26,441; deaths, 22·3 per thousand. [For further information regarding Kaira, see the *Gazetteer of Kaira and Panch Mahdls*, vol. iii. of the *Bombay Gazetteer*, edited by Mr. J. M. Campbell, B.C.S. See also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon Current Land Revenue Settlements in temporarily settled parts of British India*; the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports for the Bombay Presidency from 1880 to 1883.]

Kaira (*Kheda*).—Chief town and municipality of Kaira District, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 44′ 30″ N., long. 72° 44′ 30″ E.; 5 miles south-west of Mehmadábád station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 20 miles south-west of Ahmadábád. Population (1881) 12,640, namely, 6432 males and 6208 females.

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Hindus numbered 8704; Muhammadans, 1567; Jains, 2300; Christians, 32; Pársís, 25; and 'others,' 12. Municipal revenue (1882-83), £898; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 3½d. per head.

Kaira is a very ancient city, having a legendary connection with the *Mahábhárata*, and is proved by the evidence of copper-plate grants to have been known as early as the 5th century A.D. Early in the 18th century it passed to the Babi family, with whom it remained till 1763, when it was taken by the Maráthás under Dámájí Gáekwár; it was finally handed over to the British by Anand Ráo Gáekwár in 1803. Its frontier position rendered Kaira important to us; and a large body of infantry, cavalry, and artillery were stationed there, until the transfer, in 1830, of the frontier station to Deesa (Dísa). The Collector, superintendent of police, executive engineer, and civil surgeon constitute the administrative staff at Kaira. The climate of the town is said to have improved of late years. Earthquake shocks were felt in 1860 and 1864. The court-house is a handsome building with Greek pillars. Near it is the old jail, in 1814 the scene of a riot in which the prisoners rose, and which was only suppressed with a loss of 19 killed and 12 wounded. Reading-room, library, and clock-tower; four Government schools, with an average attendance of 333 pupils; civil hospital and post-office.

Kairána.—Town and municipality in Shamlí *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 23′ 15″ N., long. 77° 14′ 30″ E. Situated partly on the Jumna (Jamuná) lowland, and partly on the bank which leads to the higher ground above; distant from Muzaffarnagar town 31 miles south-west. Mukarrab Khán, physician to the imperial family, received the town and surrounding country from Sháh Jahán; he adorned it with many edifices, and laid out a beautiful garden with a large tank. A flourishing town with a steadily increasing population, which has risen from 11,470 in 1847, to 15,162 in 1853, to 16,953 in 1865, to 17,742 in 1872, and to 18,374 in 1881. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 10,466; Hindus, 7421; Jains, 481; and Christians, 6. Area of town site, 321 acres. Municipal revenue in 1882-83, £793, of which £731 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 9½d. per head of population. Tomb of the Muhammadan saint, Khwája Sáhib. Crowded houses; narrow and tortuous streets; well-paved and clean *bázár*; sanitary arrangements defective.

Kaisar-jo-Tando, or *Tando-Kaisar*.—Village in Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 25° 23′ 30″ N., long. 68° 34′ 35″ E. Nine miles south-west of Haidarábád, with which town and the villages of Khokhar, Húsri, Tando Haidar, and Jám-jo-Tando it has road communication. The head-quarters station of a *tapádár*. Population (1876) 1815. Not returned separately in

the Census Report for 1881. The town is said to have been founded during the rule of Mír Fateh Ali Talpur.

Kaithal.—Western *tahsíl* of Karnál District, Punjab; lying between 29° 39' 30" and 29° 57' N. lat., and between 76° 13' and 76° 47' E. long. Area, 1106 square miles. Population (1881) 204,734, namely, males 110,990, and females 93,744; average density, 185 persons per square mile. Hindus numbered 154,282; Muhammadans, 44,528; Sikhs, 5229; Jains, 668; and 'others,' 27. Of a total assessed area of 711,564 acres in 1878-79, the last year for which quinquennial agricultural statistics have been issued by the Punjab Government, 256,240 acres were returned as under cultivation, of which 7665 acres were irrigated from Government works, and 46,041 acres by private individuals. Of the remaining area, 8163 acres were returned as grazing lands; 336,065 acres as cultivable but not under cultivation; and 455,324 acres as uncultivable waste. The average area under the principal crops for the five years ending 1881-82 was as follows:—*Joár*, 59,841 acres; *bájra*, 40,458 acres; gram, 36,800 acres; barley, 33,684 acres; rice, 23,937 acres; wheat, 16,887 acres; cotton, 4834 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £14,689. The administrative staff consists of an extra-Assistant Commissioner in independent charge of the Sub-division, a Small Cause Court Judge, a *munsif*, and 4 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 6 civil and 6 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 7; strength of regular police, 123 men, village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 374.

Kaithal.—Ancient town and municipality in Karnál District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the Kaithal *tahsíl*, 38 miles distant from Karnál town. Lat. 29° 48' 7" N., long. 76° 26' 26" E. Kaithal is picturesquely situated on the brink of an extensive artificial lake or moat, which partly surrounds it, with numerous bathing-places and flights of steps. It is said to have been founded by the mythical hero Yudhisthira, and connected by tradition with the monkey-god Hanúmán. It bears in Sanskrit the name of Kapisthala, or the abode of monkeys—a name which still applies. The town was renovated, and a fort built, under Akbar. In 1767 it fell into the hands of the Sikh chieftain Bhái Desu Singh, whose descendants, the Bháis of Kaithal, ranked amongst the most important and powerful cis-Sutlej chiefs. Their territories lapsed to the British Government in 1843. For a few years Kaithal formed the head-quarters of a separate District, but in 1849 it was absorbed into the District of Thanesar, and again transferred in 1862 to that of Karnál. The now somewhat dilapidated fort or palace of the Bháis stands out prominently on the bank of the lake. A high mud wall encloses the opposite side of the town. Population (1868) 14,940; (1881) 14,754, namely, males 7302, and females 7452. Classified according to religion, there were, in the latter year—

Hindus, 8597; Muhammadans, 5852; Sikhs, 171; and Jains, 134. Number of houses, 2302. Municipal income in 1882-83, £1310; expenditure, £1594; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 9¼d. per head. The town carries on a small trade in gram, sal-ammoniac, live stock, and blankets. Refineries of saltpetre. Manufacture of lac ornaments and toys. Station of an extra-Assistant Commissioner; court-house, *tahsíli*, police station, dispensary, school, *sarái*.

Kaithan.—Town in Kotah Native State, Rájputána. Population (1881) 5031. Hindus numbered 3286; Muhammadans, 1670; and 'others,' 75.

Káiti.—Village in the Nílgiri Hills District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 11° 22′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 46′ 30° E., in a valley of the same name, 3 miles from Utákamand (Ootacamund). Population (1881) 2954; number of houses, 575. Notable as one of the earliest settlements on the Nílgiris. A Government experimental farm was established in 1831, and the first tea plants sent from Calcutta to the Nílgiris were planted here four years later. The valley is closely cultivated with barley, wheat, and other cereals, potatoes and garden crops. In 1833, Lord Elphinstone, then Governor, obtained the land on lease, and built and furnished a beautiful house, which in 1841 became the property of a civilian, from whom it passed to the Basel Mission. There are about 40 Christians in the valley. Three miles distant is the missionary out-station of Nikambe.

Kajúri, or *Kajuri Alládád.*—Estate held by a guaranteed Girásiá, Thákur, or chief, under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. It is one of the sub-divisions of territory assigned to Rájan Khán, brother of the notorious Pindárí leader, Chítú. At the death of Rájan Khán, the share of Kajúri fell to one of his sons, Iláhi Bakhsh, who was succeeded in 1859 by his posthumous son, Karím Bakshsh, the present chief. Revenue, about £240.—*See* JABRIA BHIL.

Kakáir (*Konkair*).—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated between the right bank of the Mahánadí and a high rocky hill surmounted by a fortress. Lat. 20° 15′ N., long. 81° 33′ E. Other lofty mountains surround the town, which is distant from Nágpur city 170 miles south-east. Population under 2000. Under the Maráthá Government, the *zamíndárí*, of which Kakáir is the chief place, was held on condition of furnishing 500 soldiers when required. In 1809, the Rájá was dispossessed of his territory; but, having joined the rebels in the troubles which arose on the escape of Apá Sáhib, he retook Kakáir, and was confirmed in possession, subject only to the payment of a fixed rent of £50 annually.

Kákar.—*Táluk* of Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; lying between 26° 51′ 15″ and 27° 13′ 45″ N. lat., and between 67° 24′ and 68° 2′ E. long. Area, 598 square miles. Population (1872) 46,443;

(1881) 49,500, namely, 26,609 males and 22,891 females, occupying 8506 houses. Hindus numbered 4885; Muhammadans, 42,164; Sikhs, 2437; aboriginal tribes, 13; and Christian, 1. Number of *tapás*, 11; number of towns, 1; of villages, 102, of which 7 are alienated. Total revenue in 1881-82, £18,621, of which £17,380 came from imperial, and £1240 from local sources. The *táluk* contains ▪ criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 11; regular police, 40 men.

Kákar.—Town in Kákar *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Western Nárá, in lat. 26° 58′ N., and long. 67° 44′ E. Distant from Mehar 16 miles south-south-west, and from Rukan 10 miles south-west; roads to both places. Population (1872) 702, of whom 403 were Muhammadans and 299 Hindus. No return of population for 1881. Local trade in grain and cloth. Government vernacular school.

Kakarbái.—Village in Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; situated on a peak to the left of the Chaich *nadí*, 54 miles from Jhánsi town, and 9 miles from Garotha. Population (1881) 1633. Post-office and police station.

Kakora.—Village in Budáun *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated near the bank of the Ganges, 12 miles from Budáun town. The village contains only about 2000 inhabitants, but is noted for its large annual religious trading fair held at the full moon of the month of Kártik (October-November), which is attended by as many as 100,000 persons, from Cawnpur, Delhi, Farukhábád, and various parts of Rohilkhand. After performing their religious ablutions in the sacred river, the pilgrims turn their attention to trade. The principal articles bought and sold are household furniture, confectionery and fruit, cooking utensils, shoes, cloth and other fabrics, to each of which a separate *bázár* is assigned. Articles of European manufacture are sold at a few stalls.

Kákori.—*Pargand* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Malihábád *pargána*; on the east by Lucknow *pargand*; on the south by Bijnaur *pargand*; and on the west by Mohán Aurás *pargand* of Unao District. Originally in the possession of the Bhars, who were expelled by the Báis Rájputs, and the tract included in the Báiswára kingdom. The Báis Rájá Sáthan fixed upon the old Bhar stronghold of Kákorgarh as his fort and head-quarters, from which he despatched plundering expeditions into the surrounding country. A force was sent against him by the Muhammadan King of Jaunpur; the Rájá was defeated and slain, and the Rájputs expelled from the *pargand*. At the present day, 34 out of the 64 villages are held by the descendants of the victorious Musalmáns. Area, 60 square miles, of which 30 are cultivated; the remaining half is nearly all uncultivable, owing to the extent of saline (*úsar*) plains. Average incidence of Government land

revenue, 4s. 10¾d. per acre of cultivated area; 3s. 6d. per acre of assessed area; and 2s. 3¾d. per acre of total area. Population (1869) 31,789; (1881) 30,535, namely, males 15,523, and females 15,012. The main line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway runs through this *parganá*, within a mile of Kákori town.

Kákori.—Town in Kákori *parganá*, Lucknow District, Oudh; situated nine miles due west of Lucknow city. Lat. 26° 51′ 55″ N., long. 80° 49′ 45″ E. An ancient town, dating from the time of the Bhars. Next to Lucknow city, it is the largest town of the District, and its well-stocked *bázárs* indicate considerable prosperity. The weaving trade, however, for which it was formerly noted, has of late years decayed. Kákori contains the tombs of several Muhammadan saints, and is the birthplace of numerous distinguished Musalmáns who have served under both the Native and British Governments during the past century. Many of the native lawyers (*wakíls*) practising in the Lucknow courts reside in the town, and their well-built red brick residences considerably add to the beauty of the place. The population which in 1872 was returned at 8467, had fallen in 1881 to 7462, namely, Hindus, 3909; and Muhammadans, 3553. Area of town site, 115 acres. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied. Two bi-weekly markets; Government school.

Kakrála.—Town in Dátáganj *tahsíl*, Budáun District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the unmetalled road from Budáun town to Usahát, 12 miles distant from the former place. Population (1881) 5810, namely, 3469 Muhammadans, 2305 Hindus, and 36 Christians. Area of town site, 62 acres. A small municipal revenue is raised for police and conservancy purposes. The public buildings consist of a police station, post-office, *sarái* or native travellers' rest-house, and a village school. There are also a Hindu temple and several mosques. Trade and manufactures insignificant. The town was burnt during the Mutiny, and consists at present chiefly of mud-built huts. In April 1858, a British force under General Penny, when advancing against the rebels, was attacked by a party of Gházis or Muhammadan fanatics lying in ambush near Kakrála. The general was killed in the fight, but the attacking party were completely defeated, and this victory put an end to the rebel government which had ruled at Budáun during the previous eleven months.

Kakrául.—Village in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated about 12 miles north of Darbhangah town, on the Jainagar road. Population (1872) 2440; (1881) 2945. Cloth of fine texture is woven here, and is very popular with the Nepálese. An ancient sage, Kapil Muní, is said to have lived in the village. Annual fair in January or February.

Káksá.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*tháná*) in

Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 27′ 10″ N., long. 87° 30′ 12″ E. Station on the chord line of the East Indian Railway.

Kákwágiri.—Village in the Gáro Hills, Assam, which figured prominently in the operations during the Gáro Expedition of 1872–73. (*See* GARO HILLS.) It was discovered, at an early stage of the expedition, that this village and Báwigiri were notoriously among the most disaffected, and they were occupied without difficulty, several prisoners being taken.

Kálabágh.—Town, municipality, and salt mines in Bannu District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 57′ 57″ N., long. 71° 35′ 37″ E. Population (1881) 6056, namely, 4993 Muhammadans, 936 Hindus, 54 Sikhs, and 73 'others.' Picturesquely situated at the foot of the Salt Range, on the right bank of the Indus, at the point where the river debouches from the hills, 105 miles below Attock. The houses nestle against the side of a precipitous hill of solid rock-salt, piled one upon another in successive tiers, the roof of each tier forming the street which passes in front of the row immediately above. Overhead, a cliff also of pure rock-salt, towers above the town. An Awan family, who reside in Kálabágh, have a certain supremacy over the whole of their fellow-tribesmen, the representative of the family being known as *sardár* or Khán. The salt is quarried at Mari, opposite the town, where it stands out in huge cliffs, practically inexhaustible. The similar outcrop at Kálabágh itself is not quarried. The quarries, six in number, are situated in the Lun *nálá*, a small tributary of the Indus on its right bank. The depôt at which the salt is sold stands on the left bank of the *nálá*, close to the Indus.

The salt occurs underlying tertiary strata in workable seams of from four to twenty feet thick, alternating with seams of impure salt and marl. It is quarried in the usual way by blasting, broken into pieces of suitable size, and then moved to the Government depôt on cattle. The miners supply the cattle, and are paid at the rate of [illegible] per 35 *maunds* of salt quarried; and 2s. 6d. per 100 *maunds* in addition for the salt when delivered at the *depôt*. The whole of the operations connected with the salt up to the time that it is deposited in store in the *depôt* are in the hands of the miners. At the depôt the salt is weighed out to purchasers, and cleared under the supervision of the inspector in charge, after which it finds its way either by the road to Makhad and thence to Rawal Pindi, or down the river to Sind and places *en route*. The quantity turned out in [illegible] amounted to 77,615 *maunds* (say [illegible] tons), and the revenue was £[illegible]. The average annual outturn of salt delivered to traders for the five years ending [illegible] was [illegible] *maunds*, or [illegible] tons. Alum also occurs in the neighbouring hills, and forms a considerable item of local trade, the out-turn being about [illegible] *maunds* per annum [illegible]

for 7s. per *maund* of 80 lbs. Manufacture of iron instruments from metal imported from the Kánigoram Hill. Staging bungalow, school-house, dispensary, *sardi*. Municipal revenue in 1881-82, £725, or 2s. 4¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kaládgi, *now officially called Bijápur District.*—District in the Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency; situated between 15° 50′ and 17° 27′ N. lat., and 75° 31′ and 76° 31′ E. long. On the north Bijápur is separated by the river Bhíma from the District of Sholápur and Akalkot State; on the east and south-east it is bounded by the Nizám's Dominions (Haidarábád, Deccan); on the south the Málprabha river divides it from the District of Dhárwár and the State of Rámdrúg; and on the west it is bounded by the States of Mudhol, Jámkhándi, and Játh. [The name of the District of Kaládgi was finally changed to that of Bijápur by Orders of the Bombay Government, dated 18th June 1884, with effect from 1st March 1885. By the same Orders the head-quarters of the District were to be transferred, as soon after that date as practicable, from Kaládgi to BIJAPUR (*q.v.*). The earlier volume of *The Imperial Gazetteer* containing Bijápur was printed off before this change had been effected.] Area, 5757 square miles. Population (1881) 638,493 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Though alike in many respects, the lands of the District may conveniently be divided into two main sections. The river Kistna (Krishna) divides the two tracts for some distance, but they meet and run into one another lower down in the Muddebihal Sub-division. Here also is found a third type of country, the Don valley, a well-defined tract. The forty miles north of Bijápur town and the greater part of the Sindgi Sub-division form a succession of low billowy uplands, bare of trees, gently rounded, and falling into intermediate narrow valleys. On the uplands, the soil, where there is any, is very shallow; tillage is confined to the valleys; from every third or fourth upland issues a stream fringed with wild date trees. Among the trees are gardens, and beside the gardens stands the village; a little farther on a grove of trees shades the village temple. The barrenness of the country and the dreariness of upland after upland and valley after valley, each like the last, are depressing. During the rainy season when the uplands are green and the valleys waving with millet, the effect though tame is not unpleasing. In spite of its barrenness, the country has excellent water.

The Don valley begins close to the old city of Bijápur, and crosses the District from west to east. This tract is of rich deep black soil; the rocky trap uplands disappear, the undulations are much longer and more gradual, and in many parts there is a true plain. The villages lie close to the Don river. This valley is badly off for water. In February, when the whole valley is a sheet of magnificent millet, wheat, and golden *kusumbhi* (Carthamus tinctorius), the prospect is extremely fine.

South of the Kistna, towards the west, the level of the rich plain is broken by two lines of hills. These are for the most part rounded and sloping, but the steep and quaintly-shaped sandstone cliffs of Bádámi form an exception to the rule. Between the hills lie wide barren tracts covered with loose stones; but there are also many stretches of light land, well wooded and bright with patches of red and white soil. To the east extends a black plain, as treeless and dull as that north of the Kistna.

The District is well supplied with rivers and water-courses. Of these, the most important are, beginning from the north, the Bhíma, the Dhon, the Kistna, the Ghátprabha, and the Málprabha, all large rivers flowing throughout the year, and, excepting the Dhon, impassable during the rainy season except by boats. There are also many small streams. The water of the Dhon is too salt to drink, but the other large streams supply drinking water of fairly good quality. In 1881-82, the District possessed for irrigation 467 dams, 456 water-lifts, and 6295 wells.

The mineral products are iron, slate, basalt, limestone, laterite boulders, and a shale containing vegetable remains. There are no forests. The hills in the Bádámi and Hungund Sub-divisions are covered with low brushwood, only fit for fuel. The wild animals include leopards, hog, antelope, wolves, and jackals.

History.—Seven places within the limits of the District,—Aivalli in Bádámi, Bádámi, Bágalkot, Dhulkhed in Indi, Galgali in Kaládgi, Hippargi in Sindgi, and Máhákuta in Bádámi,—are illustrated by legends of sages and demons, perhaps in memory of early fights between northern invaders and local chiefs. These legends describe these places as within the Dandaka forest or Dandakáranya. The District in the second century A.D. seems to have contained at least three places of sufficient consequence to be noted in the place lists of Ptolemy, namely, Bádámi, Indi, and Kalkeri. So far as is known, the oldest place in Bijápur is Bádámi, a Pallava stronghold. About the middle of the sixth century the early Chalukya Pulikeshi I. wrested Bádámi from the Pallavas. From the Chalukya conquest of Bádámi to the Muhammadan invasion, the history of the District includes four periods,—an early Chalukya and Western Chalukya period lasting to about 760 A.D.; a Ráshtrakuta period from 760 to 973; a Western Chalukya, Kalachuri, and Hoysala Ballála period from 973 to 1190, with Sinda underlords in South Bijápur from 1120 to 1180; and a Devagiri Yádava period from 1190 to the Muhammadan invasion of the Deccan at the close of the thirteenth centur[illegible] army led by Alá-ud-dín, the nephew of [illegible] in the Deccan, sacked [illegible] territories, to which place the seat of government had been removed from Bijápur during the Yádava period), stripped Rámchandra (the

ninth king of the Yádava line) of his wealth, and forced him to acknowledge the supremacy of the Delhi Emperor. In the middle of the fifteenth century, Yusaf Adíl Sháh founded an independent Muhammadan State with Bijápur for his capital. From this time, the history of the District is that of the town of BIJAPUR (*q.v.*).

The great Chinese pilgrim and traveller Hwen Thsang visited Bádámi, then the seat of the Chalukya dynasty. He described the people as tall, proud, simple, honest, grateful, brave, and exceedingly chivalrous; the king as proud of his army and his hundreds of elephants, despising and slighting the neighbouring kingdoms; the capital full of convents and temples with relic mounds or *stupas* made by King Asoka, where the four past Buddhas had sat, and, in performing their exercises, had left the marks of their feet; heretics of various sects were numerous, the men loved study and followed the teachings of both heresy and truth. He estimated the kingdom as nearly twelve hundred miles (6000 *li*) in circumference.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the population at 816,273 persons; the Census of 1881 at 638,493, showing a decrease of 177,780 persons, or more than 20 per cent., in nine years, attributable to the famine of 1876–78. Average density of population, 111 persons per square mile; number of towns, 11; villages, 1130; occupied houses, 114,533; unoccupied houses, 40,086; houses per square mile, 27; persons per house, 5·57. Classified according to sex, there were 317,611 males and 320,882 females; proportion of males, less than 50 per cent. of the total population. There were, under 15 years—males, 118,479, and females, 112,700; total, 231,179, or 36 per cent. of the population.

Of the 1141 towns and villages in Kaládgi District, 351 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 423 from two to five hundred; 230 from five hundred to one thousand; 93 from one to two thousand; 18 from two to three thousand; 15 from three thousand to five thousand; 8 from five to ten thousand; and 3 from ten to fifteen thousand.

Distributed according to religion, the Census of 1881 yields the following returns:—Hindus, 568,096, or 89 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 67,066, or 10·5 per cent.; Jains, 2679; Pársís, 26; Christians, 625; and Buddhist, 1. The term Hindu embraces the following castes:—Bráhmans, 20,374; Rájputs, 4414; Kolís, agriculturists, 10,187; Kunbís, agriculturists, 16,992; Berads, 21,262; Koshtís, 8010; Kumbhárs, 5429; Lohárs, smiths, 1349; Malís, gardeners, 2265; Mangs and Dhers, 44,433; Sonárs, goldsmiths, 2273; Sutars, 2114; Telís, oilmen, 36,952; Bhandáris, 5010; Chamárs, 3664; Darjís, 3250; Dhángars, 94,786; Dhobís, 3215; Hajjáms, 6926; Jangams, 26,631; Lingáyats, 4377; Panchamsális, 56,865; Raddis, 29,055; and 'others,' 158,237. The Muham-

madans are composed as follows:—Patháns, 3090; Sayyids, 11,272; Shaikhs, 52,043; 'others,' 661. Of the Christians, 579 are natives.

In the Census of 1881, the males of the population were divided into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 10,402; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1753; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 1318; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 165,640, (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 38,321; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 100,177.

Agriculture supports 485,164 persons, or 76 per cent. of the entire population. Thirty-seven per cent. of the agricultural population are actually engaged in tillage. The incidence of the State demand on each cultivable acre was, in 1881, 1s; of local cess, ¾d. The land of the District varies from a poor sandy and stony soil to a rich deep black loam; the tract lying along the banks of the river Dhon is noted for its richness and power of retaining moisture. The sandy soils are unsuited for cotton, wheat, grain, and other cold-weather crops, and yield only the common varieties of millet and pulse, but they are nevertheless, in the larger villages, well ploughed, manured, and weeded. In 1881, the area of uncultivable land in the District was 761 square miles; of cultivated, 4076 square miles; and of cultivable waste, 920 square miles. The agricultural stock in State villages amounted in 1881–82 to 49,761 ploughs, 8846 carts, 197,560 bullocks, 93,171 cows, 88,562 buffaloes, 7684 horses, 363,608 sheep and goats, and 5043 asses. The area of Government cultivable land bearing assessment was 2,170,859 acres, or 66 per cent. of the total, of which 143,806 acres were fallow or under grass. Of this cultivable area, 1,719,524 acres were under actual cultivation (317 acres being twice cropped), of which grain crops occupied 1,209,075 acres, or 68·70 per cent.; pulses, 73,360 acres, or 4 per cent.; oil-seeds, 70,426 acres, or 3·9 per cent.; fibres, 359,210 acres, or 20 per cent. (357,701 acres cotton); and miscellaneous crops, 7453 acres, or ·4 per cent.

Among the agricultural products of the Districts, Indian millet or *joár* (Sorghum vulgare), grown both as a rainy-season and a fair-weather crop, held in 1881–82 the first place with 949,385 acres, or 53·3 per cent. of the area under actual cultivation. It constitutes the chief food of the people; and, except in seasons of unusual abundance, the whole crop is consumed in the District. The other cereals of importance are, spiked millet or *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum), occupying 136,924 acres, and wheat, covering 97,746 acres. The most valuable, and, next to millet, the most widely grown crop is cotton, occupying an area which, during the four years 1872–76, increased from

184,102 to 289,480 acres. By 1882-83, the area under cotton had further increased to 351,844 acres. Castor-oil, linseed, safflower, and sesamum or *til* are grown and exported, safflower in considerable quantities. But little rice is produced, and what is grown is of an inferior variety. In some parts of the District, a careless system of tillage is followed, portions of many fields being allowed to lie waste and become choked with grass. With the growth of the population up to 1876, the area under cultivation steadily increased, and tracts which thirty years ago sheltered the more dangerous sorts of wild beasts are now tilled fields. Much land fell out of cultivation during the famine of 1876-78. It is being gradually resumed, but the amount under cultivation has not yet come up to its normal quantity.

The average wages earned in the District are 1s. 7½d. a day for skilled and 6¾d. for unskilled labour; 2s. a day is paid for carts; 1s. 1d. for camels; 8¼d. for pack bullocks; and from 1s. 6d. to 6s. for boats. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1881-82 were—for a rupee (2s.), *joár* (Indian millet), 64 lbs. (3s. 6d. per cwt.); rice, 19 lbs. (11s. 9d. per cwt.); wheat, 42 lbs. (5s. 4d. per cwt.); and *dál* (split-pease), 36 lbs. (6s. 2d. per cwt.).

Natural Calamities.—Owing to its uncertain rainfall, Kaládgi is very subject to failure of crops and consequent scarcity of grain. Like the rest of the Deccan, this District was at the beginning of the 15th century left by the great famine of 1396-1406 almost utterly waste and deserted; and in 1791, it again suffered grievously from the want of rain—still remembered by the people as the Skull Famine, the ground being covered with the skulls of the unburied dead. In 1803, the Pindárís stripped the country of food, and the price of millet rose to 4 lbs. per rupee (56s. per cwt.). In 1818-19, a failure of rain caused great distress, and raised the price of millet to 12 lbs. per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt. Other years of drought and scarcity were 1824-25, 1832-33, 1853-54, 1863-64, and 1866-67. Finally, in 1876-77, the failure of rain was more complete and general in Kaládgi than in any other part of the Bombay Presidency. The price of millet rose to 9 lbs. per rupee (2s.), and the price of wheat to 5 lbs.

A special Census, taken on the 19th May 1877, when the famine was general and severe, showed that of 72,451 workers on public works, 3320 were manufacturers or craftsmen, 23,688 were holders or under-holders of land, and 45,443 were labourers. The total cost of the famine was estimated at £258,376, of which £230,873 was spent on public works, and £27,503 on charitable relief. The estimated loss of population caused by death and emigration is 234,841. The number of cattle decreased from 741,291 in 1875-76 to 437,716

in 1878–79, a loss of 303,575 head. The tillage area fell from 2,084,721 acres in 1875–76 to 2,078,796 acres in 1878–79.

In 1879 the District suffered from a plague of rats, which destroyed about one-half of the crops by eating off the millet heads and the cotton pods, and biting the wheat stalks close to the ground. The ravages of the rats continued throughout the year, and threatened the general destruction of the early crops. Active measures were taken to reduce their numbers; no fewer than 4,130,209 were destroyed.

Manufactures and Commerce.—A large proportion of the people earn a living as weavers, and the peasants add to their income by the sale of home-spun cotton thread. The chief manufactures of the District are cotton and silk cloth. In addition to what is used in the District, considerable quantities of cloth are sent to Sholápur, Poona (Púna), Belgáum, and the Nizám's territory. Of late years, the number of handlooms is said to have increased. Blankets are woven to a considerable extent, and are in considerable demand as far as Bombay. Large quantities of cotton yarn and cloth are also dyed and exported. Except the coppersmiths, whose wares are sent out of the District, none of the Kaládgi artisans have a name for special skill in their crafts. The chief articles of import are piece-goods and rice from Sholápur, cocoa-nuts and salt from the coast, betel-nut and spices from Kánara, and molasses from Belgáum. In all sub-divisional stations, and in some other of the larger villages, a weekly market is held. Amíngarh is a great mart for cattle and coast produce. There are 11 towns with a population of over 5000. The chief of these are Bágalkot, Bijápur, Guledgad, Ilkal, Kaládgi, Tálikot, and Hungund. Thirty years ago, there were no cart roads in Kaládgi; but in 1881–82, the number of carts was returned at 8846, and the main centres of trade are now connected by fair-weather roads. The East Deccan line of the South Maráthá railway system also passes through the District *viá* the towns of Indi, Bijápur, Bágalkot, and Bádámi.

Besides the local trading classes, there is a large body of Gujaráthí and Márwárí money-lenders and cloth merchants in the District.

Administration.—The first settlement of the District took place in 1843–44. The total revenue of Kaládgi in 1882–83, under all heads, imperial, local, and municipal, amounted to £160,976, or, on a population of 638,493, an incidence per head of 5s. 0½d. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, producing £119,642. Other important items are excise (£12,282), stamps (£5896), and local funds. The District local funds created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education yielded in 1881–82 a total sum of £14,127. There are (1882) 4 municipalities, containing an aggregate population of 40,872 persons. Their total receipts (1882–83) are returned at £2389, and the incidence of taxation varies from 7¾d. to 1s. 6d. a head.

The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and four Assistants, of whom three are covenanted civilians. The number of fiscal Sub-divisions is eight. For judicial purposes, Kaládgi is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Belgáum. There are 4 civil courts. Twenty-two officers share the administration of criminal justice in 24 criminal courts. The total strength of the regular police consisted in 1881–82 of 3359 officers and men, or 1 to every 190 of the population; total cost, £9945, or £1, 14s. 6d. per square mile of area and 3½d. per head of population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1315, being 1 person to every 485 of the population. There is one District jail. Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855–56 there were only 9 schools, with 395 pupils. By 1876–77 the number of schools had risen to 137, attended by 6236 pupils, or, on an average, 1 school to every 8 villages. In 1882–83 there were—schools, 182; pupils, 10,612. On an average there is a village school to every 32 square miles. One vernacular newspaper was published in the District in 1882–83.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall in Kaládgi is very uncertain. The average during the five years ending with 1876 was 22 inches. The prevailing diseases are fever, rheumatism, guinea-worm, and cholera. A civil hospital at Kaládgi town and 5 dispensaries afforded medical relief to 352 in-door and 21,853 out-door patients in 1881–82, and 13,338 persons were vaccinated. The births registered in 1881 numbered 19,580; deaths, 13,517: death-rate, 21 per thousand. [For further information regarding Kaládgi, see the *District Gazetteer*, published by authority of the Bombay Government, and edited by Mr. J. M. Campbell, B.C.S. (vol. xxiii. of the *Bombay Gazetteer*). Also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon Current Land Revenue Settlements in temporarily settled parts of British India*, p. 487; the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881; and the several Presidency Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884.]

Kaládgi.—Town and municipality, Kaládgi District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the right bank of the Ghátprabha river, 111 miles south by west of Sholápur station on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Lat. 16° 12′ 30″ N., long. 75° 32′ E. Population (1881) 7024, namely, 3628 males and 3396 females. Hindus numbered 4420; Muhammadans, 2521; Jains, 19; Christians, 58. Municipal revenue (1882–83), £254; municipal expenditure, £215; incidence of municipal taxation, 8¼d. Kaládgi was formerly the chief station of the District, but the head-quarters have now (1885) been removed to Bijápur.

Káláhandi.—*Zamíndári* or estate in the Central Provinces.—*See* KAROND.

Kálahasti.—*Táluk* in Kálahasti *zamíndári* of North Arcot District,

Madras Presidency. Area, 204,805 acres. Population (1881) 52,037, namely, 26,271 males and 25,766 females, dwelling in 10,103 houses. Hindus numbered 50,003; Muhammadans, 1910; and Christians, 124. No places in the *táluk*, except Srí Kálahasti (9935) and Puranduru (1138), possess more than 1000 inhabitants.

Kálahasti (*Kálastri, Calastri*).—*Zamíndári* estate, situated partly in North Arcot and partly in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; one of the largest estates in the Karnatik. Population (1881) 135,104 in North Arcot. Number of villages, 612 in North Arcot, and 190 in Nellore. Area, 736 square miles in North Arcot, and 415 square miles in Nellore; *peshkash* (rent) to Government, £19,000.

The *zamíndári* came into British possession in 1792. The *zamíndár* of Kálahasti at one time could bring into the field a contingent of over 5000 men. His revenues are estimated at between £40,000 and £50,000 per annum. The country is in a great measure covered with scrub jungle, especially the portion in North Arcot District, from which Madras city is supplied with firewood. Half of the tract is reported to be cultivated; the soil is a red clay mixed with sand. There are few wells. For rent the *zamíndár* takes one-half of the produce. Copper, iron, and limestone are found. Glass-making is a staple industry. There are 51 miles of road.

The history of the estate is obscure. The first *pálegár*, or hereditary chief, was of the Vellama caste, and probably received the grant from one of the Vijayanagar kings in the 15th century. The estate at one time spread as far as the site now occupied by Fort St. George. The chief has been created C.S.I., and the title of Rájá has been bestowed upon him.

Kálahasti (*Srí Kálastri, Calastri*).—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 13° 45′ 2″ N., and long. 79° 44′ 29″ E., on the right bank of the Suvarnamukki river, 16 miles north-east of Tripati (Tirupáti) station on the Madras Railway, north-west line. Population (1881) 9935, namely, 4750 males and 5185 females. Hindus numbered 8627; Muhammadans, 1258; and Christians, 50. Kálahasti is the residence of the Kálahasti *zamíndár* and of a sub-magistrate; has large *bázárs*, and is a place of pilgrimage. It is sometimes called Srí Kálahasti. In its extensive suburbs a good deal of cloth is woven. Grain, bangles, and the like commodities are the chief articles of trade. A magnificent festival called *Sivarátri* is held in March and continues for ten days. The great temple to Párvatí cannot be entered by Europeans. The centre of the old town is occupied by a square filled with houses, around which four broad streets run, meeting one another at right angles. To the east and north-east the town has been extended irregularly. The temple, dedicated to Siva, from which the chief importance of the town is

derived, stands at the base of the southern hill, and near the south-west angle of the central square.

Kálai.—Port in the Umbargám customs division of Tháná District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 19° 14′ N., long. 73° 6′ E. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1873–74—imports, £737; exports, £10,975. In 1881–82 the imports were £199; exports, £6646.

Kalakád.—Town in the Nánguneri *táluk* of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1871) 6480; (1881) 7281, namely, 3492 males and 3789 females. Hindus numbered 6306; Muhammadans, 841; and Christians, 134. Area of town, 2797 acres. Police station; weekly fair on Thursday.

Kálá Kúsí.—River of Purniah District, Bengal; marks one of the old beds of the Kúsí. Although it still presents to some extent the character of a river, it is so broken up by diverging, re-uniting, and interlacing channels, that it is almost impossible to determine where it begins or what is its course. It may, however, be considered to have its rise under the name of the Kamlá, near Rániganj, in the north of the District; whence it flows southward to Purniah town, where it receives its principal tributary, the Saurá. Below Purniah it continues a southward course, often by several channels, until it falls into the Ganges (lat. 25° 16′ 45″ N., long. 87° 43′ 30″ E.) south-east of Manihári police station, opposite Sáhibganj.

Kalale.—Village in Mysore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 12° 5′ N., long. 76° 43′ E. Situated close to the Mysore-Utakámand (Ootacamund) road. Population (1871) 2306; (1881) 1975. Founded in 1504 by a local chief, whose family afterwards supplied the Dalaváyis or hereditary mayors of the Mysore palace, who supplanted the Hindu Rájás of Mysore, and were themselves overthrown by Haidar Alí. Large castor-oil trade.

Kálamb.—Town in Wún District, Berár, Haidarábád Assigned Districts. Lat. 20° 26′ N., long. 78° 22′ 30″ E. Situated 14 miles east of Yeotmal, the head-quarters of the District. Population (1881) 2975; number of houses, 611. Bears signs of having once been a large town. It gave its name to one of the *Sarkárs* or Divisions of the old Berár Subah. There is a remarkable underground temple here, dedicated to Chintáman. Land revenue of town (1881), £361. School, post-office, and police station.

Kalánaur.—Town in Rohtak *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 49′ 45″ N., long. 76° 25′ 15″ E. Situated on the road from Rohtak to Bhiwáni, 12 miles from the former town. Population in 1868, 5646; in 1881, 7371, namely, Hindus, 4201; Muhammadans, 3061; and Jains, 109. Number of houses, 970. A small market town with some local trade, and noted for its manufacture of saddlery and leather work, purchased to supply Native cavalry.

Kalánaur.—Town and municipality in Gurdáspur *tahsíl*, Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 1′ N., long. 75° 11′ 30″ E. Situated on the Kirrán stream, 17 miles west of Gurdáspur town. Population (1868) 5646; (1881) 4962, namely, 3264 Muhammadans, 1577 Hindus, 46 Sikhs, and 75 Jains. Kalánaur was a place of considerable importance in the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries. Historically interesting as the spot where Akbar received the news of his father's death, and ascended the imperial throne. A third-class municipality, with a revenue in 1881-82 of £289; expenditure, £264; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1¾d. per head. Dispensary, school, second-class police station, and post-office.

Kalang.—Important offshoot of the Brahmaputra in Nowgong (Naugáon) District, Assam, which issues from the south or left bank a few miles below Bishnáth in Darrang on the opposite side of the river, and, after many windings through the centre of the District, finally rejoins the Brahmaputra at Pánikhaiti, about 15 miles above Gauhátí. For the last few miles of its course it forms the boundary between the Districts of Nowgong and Kámrúp. Its tributaries—all on the south or left bank—are the Misá, Diju, Nanái, Kapili, Kiling, and Digru. The principal towns and centres of traffic are Nowgong, Rahá, and Chápari-mukh. Since 1858, a large sandbank has formed at the exit of the Kalang from the Brahmaputra, which obstructs navigation during the greater part of the year. In the rainy season, the Kalang has a depth of 26 feet of water. A little south of Nowgong town are two large *bils* or marshes, known as Mari Kalang and Potá Kalang, which have evidently been formed by changes in the course of this river. There is an important ferry at Rahá.

Kalan Kot (or *Kalia Kot, Kála Kot*).—Ruins of an ancient fort in the Jerruck (Jhírak) Sub-division of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. It is seated on a limestone hill, which abounds in marine shells, and is everywhere honeycombed with natural cavities. Said to have been built in the 15th century, on the site of a still more ancient stronghold. It must have been of great strength, and the remains seem to show that it was destroyed by fire. The fort is three miles south of Tatta.

Kalaroá.—Town and head-quarters of a police circle (*thána*), Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the Betná river. Lat. 22° 42′ 35″ N., long. 89° 7′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 5995, namely, Hindus, 2109; Muhammadans, 3886. Area of town site, 3520 acres. Trade in rice and sugar.

Kalasa.—Village in Kadúr District, Mysore State, Southern India. Situate in a valley 30 miles west-south-west of Chikmagalúr. Lat. 13° 14′ 20″ N., long. 75° 24′ 11″ E. Contains a large temple dedicated to Kaleseswara, surrounded with ruinous mounds and inscriptions of the

Bairasa Wodeyar family of Kárkala, dating from the 12th to the 16th century. Subsequently a residence of the Aigar chiefs. The town then extended so as to include the present villages of Melangadi, Kilangadi, and Rudrapáda. Areca-nut produced in the neighbourhood is reckoned the best in Mysore.

Kálastri (or *Calastri*).—*Zamíndárí* and village, Madras Presidency. —*See* KALAHASTI.

Kalát.—Province or collection of chiefships, and chief town of the territories of the Khán of Kalát, Baluchistán.—*See* KHELAT.

Káláwár.—Town in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; situated about 28 miles south-east of Nawánagar. The chief town of Káláwár *maháll* or revenue division. Population (1872) 2604; but this total sank in 1881 to 2316, owing to the famine of 1878-79. The town is famous in local legend as being the place where a Wála Rájput married a daughter of a Káthi, and thus formed the present tribe of Wála-Káthis. It was noted as far back as 1780 for fine *dangari*, or coarse cotton cloth, worn by Rájás and great chiefs before the introduction of English calico. Káláwár is a walled town.

Ka-le-gauk.—Island off the coast of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It is 50 miles long, and runs north by west and south by east, with its northern extremity 50 miles from Cape Amherst. The northern half of the island is described as consisting of 'a long granite ridge, with a perpendicular drop to the sea.' The western side is broken into abrupt hills, with level, well-raised, intervening spaces forming three bays; one of which, Quarry Bay, furnished the stones for the Alguada Reef lighthouse. The water-supply is good, as a perennial spring of sweet water flows through the centre of the island.

Kalesar.—Forest reserve in Ambálá (Umballa) District, Punjab, covering an area of 11,829 acres. It lies on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and, running up the slopes of the Siwálik range, juts into Sirmúr (Sarmor) State. This tract possesses great importance on account of the *sál* trees, which compose its principal timber.

Kalghatgi.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 1' to 15° 29' 15" N., long. 74° 54' 40" to 75° 13' 40" E. Area, 279 square miles, with 105 villages and 8864 houses. Population (1881) 50,769; density of population, 182 persons to the square mile. The population is composed of 25,902 males and 24,867 females; and is divided into 44,219 Hindus, 4725 Muhammadans, and 1825 'others.' Since 1872, the population has decreased by nearly 2000. Kalghatgi Sub-division is in the west of the District; bounded on the north by Dhárwár, on the east by Hubli and Bankápur Sub-divisions, on the south by Yellápur in North Kánara, and on the west by Yellápur and Haliyál in North Kánara. Most of the country is

broken by woody hills. The east and south are open and rolling, with bushy uplands. The north and west are wilder. The supply of water is on the whole plentiful. The rainfall in the wooded west is heavier than in the rest of the Sub-division; average at Kalghatgi town, 29·25 inches a year. Land revenue, £12,985. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts; police station (*thánά*), 1; regular police, 34 men; village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), 125.

Kalghatgi.—Town in the Kalghatgi Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 15° 10′ N., long. 75° 2′ E. Situated 20 miles south of Dhárwár town, on the Kárwár-Dhárwár road. Rest-house, and weekly market on Tuesdays, when rice is chiefly sold.

Kalhatti.—Village in Nílgiri Hills District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 27′ 45″ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; 8 miles from Utakámand (Ootacamund), on the principal road to Mysore. Elevation above sea-level, 6700 feet. Situated 3 miles below the head of the Segúr *ghát*. There is a travellers' bungalow, which is resorted to by tourists, who come for the sake of the view of the waterfall (170 feet) close by; also a botanical garden kept up by Government. Oranges, apples, peaches, and pears thrive particularly well. Police station.

Kali.—River of the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GOGRA.

Káliá.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánά*) in Jessor District, Bengal. The village contains settlements of Káyasths and Baidyás, many of whom are employed in the courts and Government offices at the head-quarters town, and only return to their homes for the *Durgá-pújá* holidays, when they spend their time in boat-racing. Good water communication with Narál to the north, and Khulná to the south. Flourishing school.

Kaliábar.—Village and police station (*thánά*) in the east of Nowgong (Naugáon) District, Assam; situated on the Brahmaputra, a few miles below the point where the Kalang river issues from that river. A calling station for river steamers.

Káliá-Chak.—Village and head-quarters of a police circle (*thánά*) in Maldah District, Bengal; situated on the banks of the Ganges. Lat. 21° 51′ 15″ N., long. 88° 3′ 1″ E. This was formerly the head-quarters of a large indigo factory known as the Káliá-Chak concern. The residence and factory buildings still exist, although the factory is closed.

Kaliánpur.—North-westerly *tahsíl* of Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces; extending from the Ganges to the Jumna (Jamuná), and traversed throughout by the East Indian Railway. Area, 279 square miles, of which 153 are cultivated. Population (1872) 116,391; (1881) 119,182, namely, males 61,416, and females 57,766. Hindus numbered 109,384, and Muhammadans, 9798. Number of villages, 216. Land revenue, £25,606; total Government revenue,

including rates and cesses, £29,893; rental paid by cultivators, £42,143.

Kálí Báori.—Petty State of Dhár under the Bhíl or Bhopáwar Agency of Central India. The chief, or Bhúmia, receives £137 from the Dhár Darbár, and £12 *zamíndárí*, on condition of guarding the *parganá* of Dharmpuri and being answerable for robberies. He holds five villages of Dharmpuri *parganá* in perpetuity, for which he pays annually £50. He also receives £15 from Sindhia, and is answerable for robberies in seventeen villages in Bánkaner. These three engagements are under British guarantee.

Kálíbhánj.—Island in the estuary of the Dhámrá river, Cuttack District, Orissa. Lat. (centre) 20° 47′ N., long. 86° 56′ E.

Kálígánj.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal; situated at the junction of the Jamuná and Kánksiálí rivers, on the boat route to the south. Lat. 22° 27′ 15″ N., long. 89° 4′ E. Population (1872) 3485; (1881) 5554, namely, Hindus, 2946, and Muhammadans, 2648. Area of town site, 1280 acres; number of houses, 697. Large *bázár*, and considerable river trade. Manufacture of horn sticks. Village police force of 1 petty officer and 6 men.

Kálíganj.—Village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Brahmaputra, and a port of call for the Assam river steamers. Considerable exports of rice and jute.

Kálíghát.—Sacred village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated on the bank of the old bed of the Ganges, a few miles south of Calcutta. Lat. 22° 31′ 30″ N., long. 88° 23′ E. The temple in honour of Kálí, the wife of Siva, derives sanctity from the following legend. Her dead body was carried all over the world by her disconsolate husband, until at length the corpse was cut in pieces by Vishnu with his sacred disc (*sudarsan chakra*), and the 52 places where the different parts of the body fell became sacred as places of pilgrimage. One of her fingers is said to have fallen at this spot. The temple was built about three centuries ago by a member of the Sábarna Chaudharí family, who allotted 194 acres of land for its maintenance. A Bráhman named Chandibar was the first priest appointed to manage the affairs of the shrine; and his descendants, who have taken the title of Háldár, are the present proprietors. They have amassed great wealth, not so much from the endowments as from the daily offerings made by pilgrims. The principal religious festival of the year is on the second day of the *Durgá-pújá*, when the temple is visited by crowds of pilgrims from all parts of the District.

Kálíkot (*Kolikodu*).—*Táluk* and town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* Calicut.

Kalimiyar Point (Kalli-medu, *Támil*).—Madras Presidency.—*See* Calimere.

Kálimpong. — Hill tract of Dárjíling District, Bengal. — *See* DALINGKOT.

Káli Nadi, East (properly *Kálindi*).—River in Muzaffarnagar, Meerut (Merath), Bulandshahr, Alígarh, Etah, and Farukhábád Districts, North-Western Provinces. Rises in Muzaffarnagar District, east of the Ganges Canal, and between that channel and the great sand-ridge of Sarái. During the earlier part of its course it bears the name of Nágan, and forms an ill-defined waterway, running through grassy fields. Lower down it gradually expands, and in the latitude of Bulandshahr becomes a perennial stream, running southward through a valley marked by high banks, and draining the whole eastern portion of the Doáb. Its channel here is very tortuous. At Khurjá the river trends south-eastward, and holds the same direction for the remainder of its course until it falls into the Ganges, in lat. 27° 1′ N., and long. 80° E., a few miles from Kanauj. The valley is inundated almost every year, but no injury is caused thereby, as the lands are seldom sown with any but winter crops. The fertility of the valley was temporarily destroyed a few years after the opening of the Ganges Canal by the appearance of a saline efflorescence said to be due to the rise of the spring level in consequence of the escapes by which the waste water of the canal distributaries was let into the river. In a large number of villages the revenue assessment was reduced, but as soon as the escapes were closed, the soil recovered itself, and the revenue was again raised. In Bulandshahr District the river is crossed by a handsome masonry bridge of nine arches at Bulandshahr town, and also by a bridge erected by a local landholder at Gulaothi on the road to Garhmukhtesar. In Alígarh District there are three permanent bridges. The water of the river is very little employed for irrigation, on account of its great depth below the surface. The total length of the East Káli Nadi is about 310 miles.

Káli Nadi, West. — River in Saháranpur and Muzaffarnagar Districts, North-Western Provinces; rises 16 miles south of the Siwálik Hills, at an elevation of about 1000 feet above sea-level, and flows with a general south-westerly course to join the Hindan. Lat. (point of junction) 29° 19′ N., long. 77° 40′ E.; total length, about 70 miles.

Kálindi.—A distributary of the Jamuná river, Khulná District, Bengal. It branches off from the parent stream at Basantpur, whence it flows in a southerly direction through the Sundarbans, and falls into the Ráimangal in lat. 22° 7′ N., and long. 89° 5′ 30″ E. Some distance above the point where the Jamuná falls into the same estuary, about seven miles below Basantpur, the Kálindi throws off a small creek, which, communicating with the Kálígáchhí and [illegible] rivers in the Sundarbans, and joining the Bidyadhári, forms the track for the large

boats from Calcutta to the eastward. The Kálindí is a fine deep river, averaging 300 feet in breadth.

Kálindri (or *Kálindí*).—River of Northern Bengal, an offshoot or distributary of the Kusí in Purniah District, entering Maldah about six miles north of Haiátpur town, near which place a natural connection has been effected with the Ganges. The main stream, however, runs a winding course in a south-easterly direction past Haiátpur for 20 miles, till it joins the Mahánandá at Maldah town, in lat. 25° 2′ 30″ N., long. 88° 10′ 15″ E. It receives no tributaries of any importance, the drainage of the neighbouring country being carried off by means of small creeks or *nálás*, which only contain water in the rainy season. The river is not wide, but flows in a very deep channel between banks of hard red clay, nowhere fordable during the rains. Owing to its connection with the Ganges at Haiátpur, the river is now divided into two branches, the Upper and the Lower Kálindri. The river bed of the Lower Kálindri is now silting up at its mouth where it joins the Ganges; and throughout its channel to its junction with the Mahánandá, it is throwing up great sandbanks. Both the Kálindri and Mahánandá have much deteriorated in consequence during the eight years from 1875 to 1883.

Kalingá (or *Calingá*).—One of the nine kingdoms of Southern India in ancient times. Its exact limits varied, but included the Eastern Madras coast, from Pulicat to Chicacole, running inland from the Bay of Bengal to the Eastern Gháts. The name at one time had a wider and vaguer meaning, comprehending Orissa, and possibly extending to the Ganges valley. A modern authority speaks more narrowly of it as 'the country on the coast of the Bay of Bengal, south of Orissa.' The Kalingá of Pliny certainly included Orissa, but latterly it seems to have been confined to the Telugu-speaking country; and in the time of Hwen Tsiang (A.D. 630) it was distinguished on the west from Andhra, and on the north from Odra or Orissa. The language of the country is Telugu. Táranátha, the Tibetan historian, speaks of Kalingá as one division of the country of Telinga. Hwen Tsiang speaks of Kalingá ('Kie-ling-kia') having its capital at what may now be identified with the site either of Rájámahendri (Rájahmundry) or Coringa. Both these towns, as well as Singhapur, Kalingápatam, and Chicacole, divide the honour of having been the chief cities of Kalingá at different periods. The modern Kalingia *ghát*, Kalingápatam, and Coringa may be taken as traces of the old name.

The following account of Kalingá, as described by Hwen Tsiang in 639–40 A.D., is condensed from General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India*, vol. i. p. 515:—

'In the 7th century, the capital of the kingdom of Kie-ling-kia, or Kalingá, was situated at from 1400 to 1500 *li*, or from 233 to 250

miles, to the south-west of Ganjám. Both bearing and distance point either to Rájámahendri on the Godávarí river, or to Coringa on the sea-coast; the first being 251 miles to the south-west of Ganjám, and the other 246 miles in the same direction. But as the former is known to have been *the capital of the country for a long period, it seems to* be the place that was visited by the Chinese pilgrim. The original capital of Kalingá is said to have been Sríkákulam, or Chicacole, 20 miles to the south-west of Kalingápatam. The kingdom was 5000 *li*, or 833 miles, in circuit. Its boundaries are not stated; but as it was united to the west by Andhra, and to the south by Dhanákakata, its frontier line cannot have extended beyond the Godávarí river on the south-west, and the Gaoliya branch of the Indrávati river on the north-west. Within these limits, the circuit of Kalingá would be about 800 miles. The principal feature in this large tract of country is the Mahendra range of mountains, which has preserved its name unchanged from the time of the composition of the *Mahábhárata* to the present day. This range is mentioned also in the *Vishnu Purána* as the source of the Rishikuilya river; and as this is the well-known name of the river of Ganjám, the Mahendra Mountains can at once be identified with the Mahendra Malé range, which divides Ganjám from the valley of the Mahánadi.

'Rájámahendri was the capital of the junior or eastern branch of the Chalukya princes of Vengi, whose authority extended to the frontiers of Orissa. The kingdom of Vengi was established about 540 A.D. by the capture of the old capital of Vengipura, the remains of which still exist at Vengi, 5 miles to the north of Ellore, and 50 miles west-south-west of Rájámahendri. About 750 A.D., Kalingá was conquered by the Rájá of Vengi, who shortly afterwards moved the seat of Government to Rájámahendri.

'The Calingæ are mentioned by Pliny as occupying the eastern coast of India, below the Mandei and Malli, and the famous Mount Maleus. *This mountain may perhaps be identified with the high* range at the head of the Rishikuliya river in Ganjám, which is still called Mahendra Malé, or the Mahendra Mountain. To the south, the territory of the Calingæ extended as far as the promontory of Calingon and the town of Dandaguda, or Dandagula, which is said to be 625 Roman miles, or 574 British miles, from the mouth of the Ganges. Both the distance and the name point to the great port-town of Coringa as the promontory of Calingon, which is situated on a projecting point of land at the mouth of the Godávarí river. The town of Dandaguda, or Dandagula, seems to be the Dántapura of the Buddhist chronicles, which, as the capital of Kalingá, may with much probability be identified with *Rájámahendri, only 30 miles to the north-*east of Coringa.

'A still earlier name for the capital of Kalingá was Sinhapura, so called after its founder, Sinhabahu, the father of Vijáya, the first recorded sovereign of Ceylon. Its position is not indicated, but there still exists a large town of this name on the Lalgla river, 115 miles to the west of Ganjám, which is very probably the same place.

'In the inscriptions of the Kálachuri or Haihaya dynasty of Chedi, the Rájás assume the titles of Lords of Kálanjjwrapura and of Tri-Kalingá. Kálinjar is the well-known hill fort in Bundelkhand; and Tri-Kalingá, or the "Three Kalingás," must be the three kingdoms of Dhanaka or Amarávati (on the Kistna), Andhra or Warangal, and Kalingá or Rájámahendri. The name of Trí-Kalingá is probably old, as Pliny mentions the Macco-Calingæ and the Gangarides-Calingæ as separate peoples from the Calingæ, while the *Mahábhárata* names the Kalingás three separate times, and each time in conjunction with different peoples. As Trí-Kalingá thus corresponds with the great Province of Telingána, it seems probable that the name of Telingána may be only a slightly contracted form of Trí-Kalingána, or the "Three Kalingás."'

Kalingápatam (*Calingapatam*).—Town and port in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated at the mouth of the Vamsadhára river, 16 miles north of Chicacole, in lat. 18° 20′ 20″ N., and long. 84° 9′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 4465. Hindus numbered 4334; Muhammadans, 95; Christians, 34; and 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 1246 acres. The capital of the ancient Kalingá, and one of the early seats of Muhammadan Government in the Telugu country. Signs of its ancient greatness are still visible in the ruins of many mosques and other large buildings. After rain, a mound which covers the site of the old city gives up small gold coins of great age. Kalingápatam is again rising in importance as a harbour, being in the south-west monsoon the only safe roadstead along a stretch of 400 miles of coast; and it has become a regular port of call for steamers. The vessels of the British India Steam Navigation Company put in fortnightly. A lighthouse, 64 feet high, stands on a sandy point at the mouth of the river. The town lies between this point and the south bank of the stream. A reef of rocks extends from the shore half a mile seawards. In passing, vessels ought not to approach nearer than 50 feet. Greatest depth over the bar, 14 feet 6 inches. In 1880–81, imports were valued at £11,259, and exports of rice, seeds, and sugar at £131,916. Kalingápatam is one of the four salt factories of Ganjám District. The manufacture of salt is by evaporation; the pans cover an area of 306 acres, and yield a revenue of from 4 to 5 *lákhs* of rupees (£40,000 to £50,000). The country round the town is desolate and barren.

Kalingia.—*Ghát* or pass in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency;

over which runs the only good cart road from Gúmsar (Goomsur) into the Maliyas. Lat. 20° 6′ N., long. 84° 30′ E. The length of the ascent to the crest of the *ghát* is 5 miles; gradient severe for heavily loaded carts, but strong bullocks or buffaloes take up a cart loaded to the extent of 600 lbs. easily; elevation, 2396 feet above sea-level.

Kálinjar.—Town and celebrated hill fort in Badausa *tahsíl*, Bánda District, Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 1′ N., long. 80° 31′ 35″ E. Situated on a rocky hill, in the extreme south of Bánda District, 33 miles south of Bánda town. The fort occupies a site at the extremity of a spur of the Bindáchal range, the first and lowest terrace of the Vindhyan system, commanding the Bundelkhand plain. It rises abruptly, and is separated from the nearest eminence by a valley about 1200 yards wide. Elevation, 1230 feet. The crown of the hill is a plateau with an almost perpendicular scarp on all sides; at weak points the rock has been cut away and was formerly defended by artificial works. Vast polyhedral masses of syenite form the base of the hill, and afford a comparatively accessible slope; but the horizontal strata of sandstone which cap the whole, present so bold an escarpment as to be practically impossible of ascent.

Kálinjar is one of the very ancient forts of Bundelkhand, and separate names for it are recorded in each of the three prehistoric periods of Hindu chronology. It is said to have been called Ratnakuta in the *Satya-yúg*, Mahágiri ('the great hill') in the *Treta*, and Pingálu (the 'brown-yellow' hill) in the *Dwápar-yúg*. Other accounts transpose or vary these names. But its present appellation, Kálinjar, is itself of great antiquity. It occurs, as will be mentioned hereafter, in the *Mahábhárata*; it is conjectured to appear in Ptolemy under the Greek guise of Kanagora; and it is mentioned in the *Sheo Purána* as one of the nine *utkals*, from which will burst forth the waters that are to finally destroy the world. The modern name is sometimes rendered Kálanjar, from the local worship of Siva under his title of Kálanjar, or 'He who causes time to grow old.' It was a very ancient seat of Sivaite rites, and according to local tradition was strongly fortified, probably not for the first time, by Chandra Brim or Varmma, the legendary founder of the Chandel dynasty, who is variously assigned to the 4th and 7th centuries of the Samvat era, corresponding to the 3rd and 6th centuries A.D.

As in many other cases, Kálinjar was a high place sanctified by superstition, and fortified partly by nature and partly by art. The *Mahábhárata* mentions it as already a famous city, and states that whoever bathes in the Lake of the Gods, the local place of pilgrimage, is as meritorious as he who bestows in charity one thousand cows. The hill must have been covered with Hindu temples before the erection of the fort, for the dates of inscriptions on the sacred sites

are earlier than those on the gate of the fortress; and the ramparts consist largely of ornamental pillars, cornices, and other fragments of carved work, which evidently belonged to earlier edifices. Ferishta speaks of it as having been founded by Kedár Náth, a reputed contemporary of the Prophet, in the 7th century A.D. The Musalmán historians make mention of the King of Kálinjar as an ally of Jaipál, Rájá of Lahore, in his unsuccessful invasion of Ghazní, 978 A.D. A Rájá of Kálinjar was also present at the battle of Pesháwar, fought by Anand Pál in 1008, when endeavouring to check the victorious advance of Mahmúd of Ghazní in his fourth expedition. In 1021, Nanda, then Rájá of Kálinjar, defeated the King of Kanauj, and in the following year, Mahmúd of Ghazní besieged the fort, but came to terms with the Rájá. The Chandel clan of Rájputs removed the seat of their government to Kálinjar, after their defeat by Prithwi Rájá, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi, about 1192. In 1202, Kutab-ud-dín, the viceroy of Muhammad Ghorí, took Kálinjar, and 'converted the temples into mosques and abodes of goodness,' while 'the very name of idolatry was annihilated.' But the Musalmáns do not seem long to have retained possession of their new conquest, for in 1234, and again in 1251, we hear of fresh Muhammadan attacks on Kálinjar, which fell into the hands of Malik Nasirat-ud-dín Mahmúd with great booty.

In 1247, Sultán Násir-ud-dín Mahmúd brought the surrounding country under his sway; but even after this date, Chandel inscriptions erected in the fort show that it remained in the hands of its ancient masters almost up to the close of the 13th century. Kálinjar next reappears in history in 1530, when the Mughal Prince Humáyún laid siege to the fort, which he continued intermittently to attack during twelve years. In 1554, the Afghán Sher Sháh marched against the stronghold; during the siege a live shell rebounded from the walls into the battery where the Sultán stood, and set fire to a quantity of gunpowder. Sher Sháh was brought out horribly burnt, and died the following day. Before his death, however, he ordered an assault, which took place immediately, with success, and his son Jalál was crowned in the captured citadel. Copper coins of Sher Sháh exist, which are inscribed as having been struck at Kálinjar. In 1570, Majnún Khán attacked the fort, which was finally surrendered to him for Akbar, who constituted it the head-quarters of a *Sarkár*. Under Akbar, Kálinjar formed a *jágír* of the imperial favourite, Rájá Bírbal. Later it fell into the hands of the Bundelas (*see* BANDA DISTRICT); and on the death of their national hero, Chhatar Sál, it passed into the possession of Hardeo Sah of Panná. His descendants continued to hold it for four generations, when they gave way to the family of Káim Jí, one of their own dependants.

During the period of Maráthá supremacy, Alí Bahádur laid

siege to the fort for two years, but without success. After the British occupation, Daryáu Singh, the representative of Káim Ji, was confirmed in possession of the fort and territory; but on his proving contumacious in 1812, a force under Colonel Martindell attacked Kálinjar, and although the assault met with little success, Daryáu Singh surrendered eight days later, receiving an equal portion of territory in the plains. During the Mutiny, a small British garrison retained possession of the fort throughout the whole rebellion, though isolated from all assistance. In 1866 the fortifications were dismantled.

Kálinjar is still a place of much interest to the antiquary. Seven gateways, leading one to the other, many of them bearing inscriptions, in some cases undecipherable, afford access to the fort from the north. Tanks, caves, temples, tombs, and statues cover the platform on every side. They belong to very different dates, and will be more fully referred to below.

The town or village of Kálinjar, locally called Tarahti, is situated at the foot of the hill. The population appears to be gradually decreasing, being returned at 4057 in 1865, 4019 in 1872, and 3706 in 1881. The inhabitants are principally Bráhmans and Kachhis; but on occasions of religious fairs and festivals, Baniyás and dealers of every description resort here, as also pilgrims from distant parts of India. There are a few wealthy *mahájans* or merchants in the town, and the inhabitants generally are in comfortable circumstances, but their houses and surroundings are mean. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied. A travellers' bungalow for the use of European visitors is situated near the east entrance to the town, which also contains two markets, an Anglo-vernacular school, and a branch dispensary.

In the town of Kálinjar, and at the base of the hill, are many Muhammadan tombs and mosques bearing inscriptions, but these are of little interest compared with the Hindu remains. At the base of the hill on the north-east is a tank named Sursari Ganga, hewn out of the solid rock. It is surrounded by steps composed of stones taken at random from ruins, and probably to a great extent from a temple which may have been here. Among them are capitals of pillars composed of figures of Chhatarbhúj Vishnu similar to those in the temple of Nilkantha, and there are two large recumbent figures of Vishnu Náráyana at corners of the tank. These seem to point to a temple having been at this place at one time. To the north-east of this tank, and about half-way up the hill, is a shrine of Balkhandeshwar Mahádeo, excavated in one huge boulder, which stands out on the slope.

The ascent to the fort is made from the north, by a winding path cut out in the hill, and leading through seven gateways. The first is known as the Alam Darwáza, called after Alamgír or Aurangzeb. A Persian

inscription on it gives 1084 A.H. as the year in which Aurangzeb repaired the fort. The path from this to the Ganesh (second) gate is termed the Káfir *ghát*. It is steep and rough. The third gate, Chandi Darwáza, holds a stone set into it on the right, on which is an inscription in florid nail-headed Sanskrit characters not yet published. It records that Ratan constructed the building of which it originally formed part. Hence probably the name Ratnakuta. The fourth gate is called Balbhadra (also Budbhadr and Birbhadra), but it is in no way remarkable.

A break in the wall beyond this admits of an ascent to the Kambhaur or Bhairan *kund*, a large tank about 45 yards long by 10 broad, hewn out of the rock. About 30 feet above it, on a projecting rock, is carved a gigantic figure of Bhairan. Below this is a cave cut in the rock at water-level, with square pillars for a support in front. The water, except in the hottest weather, covers the floor of the cave, which seems to have been intended as a cool retreat in the hot weather. There are inscriptions inside the cave, in which occur the names of Bari Varmma Devá, of a Sri Rám Deo, son of Surhar Deo, of Mahila and of Jasdhaul, brother of Jáhul, son of Lákhan. The last is dated 1193 Samvat, and the names of Lákhan and Mahila recall the wars of the Chauháns and Chandels. On a ledge of rock above these caves to the left is a figure of a Sramana and an inscription not yet fully deciphered.

Returning to the path, the Hanumán gate is next passed. Near this is the Hanumán *kund*. There are many sculptures and inscriptions in this part of the fort, but most of the latter are illegible. One of these inscriptions would be of great value if wholly legible, as it seems to contain the names of several Chandel kings, but only those of Kirtti Varmma and Madana Varmma are distinct. The sixth gate is termed Lál Darwáza, and the seventh Sadr Darwáza. Beyond the main gate there is a dip in the rampart, leading to the Sitá Sej, also called Rámsíjja, a stone couch in a small chamber hewn out of the rock. Tradition assigns this as a resting-place to Sítá on her return from Lanka; but an inscription over the door, cut in characters usually assigned to the 4th century, records that this cave was constructed by Hara, the Lord of the Hill, to perpetuate his name. Beyond this is the passage to Pátálganga, a cave receding about 40 feet into the mountain, and about half as wide. The descent is steep and difficult. There are many inscriptions, but none have yet been found of historical importance. Beyond Pátálganga is the Pandu *kund*, to the north-east of which is the breach made by Colonel Martindell. A path along the ramparts beyond the breach leads to the Buddhi Taláo, a tradition connected with which would ascribe the fort to Kirtti Varmma; but the tradition is faulty, for the fort would thus date only

from the eleventh century. Beyond this are the Bhagwán Sej and Pani-ki-Aman which call for no notice.

The Mrigdhára is a celebrated place on account of the seven deer cut in the rock which give it its name. There are also two rock chambers and a basin of water here. Pilgrims come and make offerings to the manes of the *rishis* whom these figures commemorate. The legend states that these were seven disciples who offended their religious instructor, and that they were cursed by him and born in their next life as Bahelias (hunters) in the Dasharan forest; in their next stage as deer at Kálinjar; then as Bráhmini ducks in Ceylon, subsequently as geese at Mánasarowar lake, and finally as Bráhmans in Kurukshetra. In this last life they attained deliverance from transmigration.

It is supposed that the water at Mrigdhára comes by percolation from Kot Tírath, but this seems unlikely on considering their relative positions. Kot Tírath (properly Kror Tírath, or 'ten million pilgrimages in one') is a large tank in the heart of the rock in the middle of the fort. Narrow flights of steps lead to the water, which is scanty except after heavy rain. Round this tank stones are found set into walls and steps, utterly misplaced, which contain inscriptions, sometimes incomplete and often too worn to be legible. On the bank are the Pathár Mahál and other buildings, undoubtedly in great part antique, but partly restorations of older remains. There are many inscriptions inside these buildings, and a few outside set into the walls, but most have suffered by lime and whitewash. The oldest form of Sanskrit characters in the fort is to be found in inscriptions on two stones in the walls of the tank, but both are unfortunately incomplete.

Going on from the Kot Tírath past Parimál's *baithak* and Amán Singh's *mahál*, the gate on the south-west leading to Níl Kantha is reached. The view which meets the eye on passing through this gate is magnificent. At foot is the breast of the hill, steep and rugged, hurrying as it were to the plain below. The Bánda-Nowgong road seems like a thread at its base; and beyond it as far as the eye can reach is a rich plain, cropped and green, dotted with hills here and there, broken sometimes by dried-up watercourses, and traversed by winding rivers which glisten like silver lines.

Descending, another gate is passed, near which are inserted in the walls well-executed figures of Tulsí Dás, and of the Jain Tírthánkaras. To the left of this is a small building, which seems to be a later addition of stone and plaster, made by Muhammadan hands; but the rock against which it is set is cut with figures, and on removing the whitewash and plaster it is seen to have been covered with inscriptions. Further on, immediately before reaching Níl Kantha are the Jata Shankar, the Shirságar, the Tung Bhairan, and some caves. Inscriptions are numerous here. In one of the caves is an inscription which

records that, on Chait Sudi 9, Somwár, of 1192 Samvat, Narsingh, son of Ralhan, erected an image of Bámdeo. A second inscription of his is dated Jeth Sudi 9, 1192 Samvat, and gives his grandfather's name as Dikshit Prithwidhára. A third inscription records that Sri Kirtti Varmma Deva and Someswar (the father of Prithwi Rájá) joined in salutation to the local deities. Another at Tung Bhairan records that Bachráj, son of Mahasránik, son of Solhan, a servant of Madana Varmma, set up an image of Lakhshmi on Kátik Sudi 6, Sainchar, in 1188 Samvat.

There are many well-executed figures, both Vaishnav and Saivik, all round this quarter, but they are little noticed in the presence of the more striking remains of the once beautiful temple of Níl Kantha Mahádeo. The pillars are well cut and surmounted by capitals composed of figures of Chhatarbhúj Vishnu, but only one set of these pillars is now standing. Tradition states that there were originally seven sets of pillars, one above the other, forming seven storeys. This is not improbable, for similar capitals abound in irregular places throughout the fort, and these would no doubt suffice for the construction of such a temple. The site was well chosen. The building rising against the face of the hill must have looked superbly grand as viewed from the plain below. The pillars now left standing form with their basements an octagonal inclosure outside the door of a cave, in which is a massive *linga* with large silver eyes, called Níl Kantha Mahádeo. On the left-hand side of this cave is a very low narrow passage, filled with *lingas*, which is said to extend round the large cave, and communicate with a similar opening on the right. At the door of the temple are two large stones covered with inscriptions. The one which is complete adds nothing to our knowledge of the Chandels. The broken record on the other has yet to be completed and read in its entirety. The floor of the space between the pillars is covered with inscriptions, but they are all historically unimportant; chiefly names of pilgrims who recorded their visits, and salutations. In front are many sculptures lying displaced. The subjects are both Vaishnav (*e.g.* the Kurma *avatár*, the ten *avatárs* of Vishnu shown on one stone) and Saivik (*e.g.* Mahádeo with Párvati), and there is also a figure of Brahma.

Above the temple is a tank cut out of the solid rock. Four pillars are left as supports, and the opening is a long low horizontal cut, with a narrow terrace in front. Beyond this is a rock-cut figure of gigantic proportions, representing Kál Bhairan, with snakes for a head-dress, in which is set the moon. It is the largest figure in Kálinjar, and must be 30 feet high. Formerly, a door below this figure led out to an inclosure in front of a perpendicular rock in which is a cave (Siddh-kí-gupha), but this gate has been closed by the British authorities, as there was a path below it opening on native territory.

There are many Muhammadan tombs on the fort; some inscribed, but these, as well as the relics of the Bundelas and Chaubes, are uninteresting, as they invite neither speculation nor research.

The town of Kálinjar, which lies below the hill, is not large. It was formerly enclosed; and three gates still stand, called the Kámtá, Panná, and Ríwá *phataks*, from the roads on which they open. [This account of Kálinjar has been given at considerable length, as it forms the most characteristic specimen of the strong places, originally hill-shrines converted into hill-fortresses, of Northern and North-Central India. The article has been amplified for the present edition from materials collected on the spot by William Hoey, Esq., C.S.]

Kalinjerá (or *Kanjrá*).—Town in Bánswárá State, Rájputána. Situated in lat. 23° 5′ N. and long. 74° 7′ E., on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Baroda, 99 miles south-west of the former and 139 north-east of the latter. Formerly a place of considerable trade, carried on by Jain merchants, who were driven away by Maráthá freebooters. Contains the ruins of a fine Jain temple, described by Heber as being built on a very complicated and extensive plan; covered with numerous domes and pyramids; divided into a great number of apartments, roofed with stone, crowded with images, and profusely embellished with rich and elaborate carvings.

Kálípání.—Sacred spring in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; regarded by the natives as the source of the river Káli, whose real head-waters lie 30 miles to the north-east. Lat. 30° 11′ N., long. 80° 56′ E. (Thornton). Situated on the slopes of the Byáns Rikhi Mountain, 5 miles south-west of Byáns Pass, on the route to Askot. Pilgrims visit the spring to bathe in its purifying waters on their way to the sacred lake of Mánasarowar.

Kálí Sind.—River of Central India; rises in lat. 22° 36′ N., and long. 76° 19′ E., in the Vindhya mountains. About 90 miles from its source, it receives, on the left, the Ludkunda, which also rises in the Vindhyas; and on the same side, about 60 miles farther down, it is joined by the Ahu and Amjar and Gagron. Near this place the Kálí Sind makes its way through the Mukandwárá (Mokundurra) range. Eventually, after a course of about 225 miles, it falls into the Chambal. About 50 miles from its junction with the Chambal at Kandgáon, the road from Kotah to Ságar (Saugor) crosses the river.

Káljání.—River of Northern Bengal, formed by the combined waters of the Aláikurí and Dimá rivers, two streams rising in the Bhután Hills, which unite near Alípur in the Western Dwárs Sub-division of Jalpáigurí District. From the point of junction the united river takes the name of Káljání, and, after a course of a few miles, flows south through the east of Kuch Behar State, and finally joins the Ráidhak in the extreme

north-east corner of Rangpur District. Used to float down timber from the forests at the foot of the hills.

Kálka.—Village and camping ground in Simla District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 50′ 21″ N., long. 76° 58′ 57″ E. Lies at the foot of the Kasauli Hill, on the main road from Ambálá (Umballa) to Simla, and to the intermediate military posts of Kasauli, Dagshai, Subáthu, and Solan. Distance from Ambálá, 38 miles; from Simla, 58 miles by cart road. The route to Simla here enters the hills, and travellers must leave the carriages in which they have come from Ambálá. Several hotels, staging bungalow, post-office, telegraph office, *sarái.* During the Simla season, the Kálka hotels do a thriving business, and native passengers to or from the hills throng the *bázár*. Elevation above sea-level, 2000 feet.

Kalladakúrichi.—Town in the Ambasamudaram *táluk* of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 40′ 30″ N., long. 77° 30′ 15″ E. Population (1871) 11,580; (1881) 10,936, namely, 5181 males and 5755 females; number of houses, 2520. Area of town site, 936 acres. Hindus numbered 9515; Muhammadans, 1383; and Christians, 38. A wealthy trading and agricultural town, situated on the Támbraparni. The town derives its importance from the rich rice lands about it. Many of the inhabitants are wealthy and intelligent Bráhman landowners. Post-office.

Kallakurchi.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 33′ to 12° 4′ 10″ N., long. 78° 42′ to 79° 15′ E. Situated in the south corner of the District. Area, 622 square miles. Population (1881) 196,029, namely, 96,962 males, and 99,067 females, dwelling in 368 villages, containing 27,355 houses. Hindus numbered 186,835; Muhammadans, 5806; and Christians, 3388. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 67 men. Land revenue, £30,283.

Kallakurchi.—Head-quarters of the Kallakurchi *táluk* of South Arcot District; lat. 11° 44′ N., long. 79° 1′ 20″ E. Area, 1465 acres. Population (1881) 3555, namely, 1750 males and 1805 females, dwelling in 498 houses. Hindus numbered 3202; Muhammadans, 344; and Christians, 9.

Kálligál.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* COLLEGAL.

Kallikot.—*Zamíndárí* estate, or *paláyam*, in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency; situated between 19° 24′ and 19° 48′ N. lat., and between 85° 59′ and 85° 14′ E. long. Chief town, Kallikot. Population (1881) 3401. The estate has an area of 53,701 acres, or 84 square miles, and contains 238 villages, with a land revenue of £1900. The family was founded by Rama Bhuiya, who was appointed *zamíndár* by Puru Shottama Gajpati Das, king of Orissa, in A.D. 1374. The country was occupied by British troops in 1769; and again, from 1771 to 1775, the

East India Company's agents and troops were employed in maintaining order. The adjoining *táluk* of Attigada was added to the estate by purchase in 1854, by the present *zamíndár*.

Kallúr.—Pass in the Eastern Gháts, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. The Kallúr Pass leads from the lowland *táluks* to those above the *gháts*. It runs along the Damalcherúru valley, and through the Kallúr *pálaiyam* or estate to the Piler *táluk* of Cuddapah. Along it passes the trunk road between Madras and Cuddapah. The traffic is considerable, though less than before the construction of the north-west line of the Madras Railway.

Kalmeshwar.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 14′ N., long. 78° 58′ E.; situated 14 miles west of Nágpur city. Built on a low-lying plain of black soil, with a fertile country on the north and west, which produces opium, sugar-cane, and tobacco. Population, 4738 in 1872, and 5318 in 1881. Hindus numbered 4842; Kabírpanthis, 170; Muhammadans, 246, Jains, 31; Buddhist, 1; and aboriginal tribes, 28. In the centre of the town stands the old fort where the village proprietor, a Kunbí by caste, resides It was built by a Hindu family from Delhi, who are said to have maintained, for the service of Bakht Buland, a force of 400 infantry and 100 cavalry. Kalmeshwar does a brisk trade in grain, oil-seeds, and country cloth. Eighty mills are engaged in pressing oil-seeds; and the cloth manufactured in the town finds a market in Berar. From the proceeds of the octroi duties, a commodious market-place has been constructed, with wide metalled roads leading towards Nágpur, Kátol, Dhápewárá, and Mohpá. The police station and school-house face the market-place.

Kalná (*Culna*).—Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal, lying between 23° 7′ and 23° 35′ 45″ N. lat., and between 87° 59′ and 88° 27′ 45″ E. long. Area, 432 square miles, with 701 villages and towns, and 59,844 houses. Population in 1872, 286,338 persons; 1881, 237,607 persons, namely, 113,625 males and 123,982 females. Hindus numbered 175,855, or 74·0 per cent; Muhammandans, 61,739, or 26·0 per cent.; and Christians, 13. Proportion of males, 47·8 per cent.; average density of population, 550 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·81; persons per village, 338; houses per square mile, 1·62; persons per house, 4·3. This Sub-division, which was constituted in 1861, comprises the three police circles (*tháнás*) of Kalná, Purbasthalí, and Mantreswar. In 1881 it contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, including a municipal bench, and a bench of honorary magistrates; a regular police force 73 strong, besides a village or rural police of 1973 men.

Kalná (*Culna*).—Town and head-quarters of Kalná Sub-division, and an important seat of trade in Bardwán District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Bhágiráthí, in lat. 23° 13′ 20″ N., and long. 88° 24′ 30″ E.

The population, which in 1872 was returned at 27,336, had, according to the Census of 1881, dwindled down to 10,463. No explanation is given of the cause of this great decrease; but it is in all probability due in a large measure to the fever epidemic, which has been raging for many years throughout the Districts of the Bardwán Division. Classified according to religion, the population of Kalná town in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 9023; Muhammadans, 1428; and Christians, 12. Area of town site, 2413 acres. The town, which is constituted a second-class municipality, yielded in 1882–83 a municipal income of £986, of which £850 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7½d. per head. From ancient times Kalná carried on a very extensive river trade, as all imports into the District from Calcutta, and all exports to other Districts and to Calcutta, passed through the town. The competition of the East India Railway has not materially affected its prosperity, as it is still found cheaper to import from Calcutta by river than by rail. Large quantities of rice are imported from Dinájpur and Rangpur. The *bázár*, or business part of Kalná, contains about a thousand houses, mostly built of brick. In Muhammadan times, a large fort, the ruins of which are still to be seen, commanded the river at this point. A good road connects Kalná with Bardwán town; it was constructed in 1831 by the Mahárájá of Bardwán, and has bungalows, stables, and tanks at every eighth mile. The road was made chiefly with a view to the Mahárájá's comfort when proceeding to bathe in the Ganges. The Mahárájá has also a palace here, and has constructed some handsome temples in the town. Two fine mosques, now in a ruined condition, date from the time of Musalmán supremacy. Kalná is a station of the Free Church Mission, and contains an English school.

Kálni.—One of the many channels of the Surmá river in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam, which all finally unite to form the main stream of the Meghná.

Kálol.—Sub-division of Panch Mahâls District, Bombay Presidency. The Sub-division, including the petty division of Hálol, is bounded on the north by Godhra; on the east by Bária; on the south and west by Baroda (Gáekwár's territory) and the Pándu Mehwás. Area, including Hálol petty division, 415 square miles. Population (1872) 66,431; (1881) 76,522, dwelling in 222 villages, and occupying 16,703 houses. The population is divided into 40,036 males and 36,486 females. Hindus numbered in 1881, 34,420 males and 31,145 females; total, 65,565; Muhammadans, 2551; and 'others,' 8406. Kálol forms a rich well-wooded plain, its fields fenced with hedges and rows of *brab* palms, its villages compact and comfortable. Three rivers cross the Sub-division of Kálol proper from

east to west—the Mesri in the north, the Goma in the centre, and the Karad in the south. These rivers are torrents in the rains and trickling streams in the winter season. Light or *gorád* soil lies all over this part of the country: the black cotton soil is not met with. The petty division of Hálol is a well-wooded and tilled plain surrounding the hill fort of Páwagarh. To the east and south, low isolated hills stand out from a rich black soil plain, most of it waste. Especially within four or five miles of the hills, the climate is unhealthy and the water often deleterious. Three rivers, namely, the Karad, the Viswámitri, and the Devnadí, cross the country from east to west. Water in Kálol lies near the surface. Cultivation is rude, and the peasantry inert. Average annual rainfall, 40 inches. Land revenue (including Hálol), £9807. The Sub-division, including Hálol, contains 4 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 2; regular police, 166 men. There are no village watchmen (*chaukidárs*), but village servants called Rawanias perform both revenue and police duties.

Kálol.—*Town in the Kálol Sub-division of Panch Mahals District*, Bombay Presidency. Kálol is the head-quarters of the Sub-division, and lies in lat. 22° 37′ N., and long. 73° 31′ E. Population (1872) 3993, mostly Kunbís, a caste of cultivators; not returned separately in the Census of 1881. Of late the prosperity of Kálol has been affected by the transfer of the trade of the region from Baroda to Páli.

Kálol.—Sub-division of Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Area, 288 square miles. Population (1881) 89,079, namely, 46,278 males and 42,801 females, dwelling in 85 towns and villages, the density of population being 309 persons to the square mile. Hindus numbered 84,296; Muhammadans, 2812; and Jains, 1971. The Sub-division is a fairly-wooded and well-cultivated plain. No rivers or lakes exist; the Sábarmatí just touches the western boundary. The rainfall in 1879–80 was 30·7 inches. Land revenue (1879–80), including miscellaneous receipts from land, £23,617. Total revenue, £27,161. The number of holdings is 10,344; the average area of each holding is 9¾ acres. The Rájputána-Málwá Railway crosses the Sub-division.

Kálol.—Town in Kálol Sub-division, Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 15′ 35″ N., long. 72° 33′ E. Population (1872) 5585; (1881) 5859, namely, 2991 males and 2868 females; travellers' bungalow; school; post-office. Kálol is a station on the Rájputána-Málwá Railway.

Kálpi.—Town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 7′ 30″ N., long. 79° 47′ 15″ E. Situated on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), among rugged ravines, 22 miles from Orái. Founded, according to tradition, by Básdeo or Vasudeva, who ruled at Kambá.

from 330 to 400 A.D. In 1196 it fell to Kutab-ud-dín, the viceroy of Muhammad Ghori. In 1400 the country around Kálpi and Mahoba was conferred upon Mahmúd Khán. Ibráhím Sháh, the Sharki prince of JAUNPUR, laid siege to Kálpi several times during the early part of the 15th century. In 1435, Hoshang, King of Málwá, captured the city; but seven years later, Mahmúd of Jaunpur, the successor of Ibráhim, complained to the Málwá prince that his viceroy at Kálpi neglected the laws of Islám, and obtained leave to chastise him. On capturing the place, however, he refused to restore it. After many intricate changes, Husáin of Jaunpur was defeated in 1477, in a great battle near Kálpi; and the town with its dependencies was thenceforth absorbed in the Provinces immediately subordinate to Delhi. On the accession of Ibráhím in 1518, Jalál Khán obtained the government of Jaunpur, and, having aroused the jealousy of the Sultán, assumed the insignia of royalty at Kálpi, and marched to attack the capital city of Agra. Being defeated, however, he fell ultimately into the hands of a Gond prince, who delivered him up to Ibráhím. After the battle of Pánípat in 1526, the confederates who endeavoured to drive out the Mughals occupied Kálpi, but were defeated by Bábar at Fatehpur Síkri.

During the Mughal period, Kálpi played so large a part in the annals of this part of India, that it would be impossible to detail its history at length. After the Maráthás interfered in the affairs of Bundelkhand, the head-quarters of their government were fixed at Kálpi. At the time of the British occupation of Bundelkhand in 1803, Nána Gobind Ráo seized upon the town. The British besieged it in December of that year, and, after a few hours' resistance, it surrendered. Kálpi was then included in the territory granted to Rájá Himmat Bahádur, on whose death, in 1804, it once more lapsed to Government. It was next handed over to Gobind Ráo, who exchanged it two years later for villages farther to the west. Since that time, Kálpi has remained a British possession. On the 23rd of May 1858, Sir Hugh Rose (Lord Strathnairn) here defeated a large force of about 12,000 rebels, under the Rání of Jhánsi, Ráo Sáhib, and the Nawáb of Bánda.

Kálpi was formerly a place of far greater importance than at the present day. It had a mint for copper coinage in the reign of Akbar; and the East India Company made it one of their principal stations for providing their commercial investment. The town, which is situated among rugged ravines, is in general meanly built, the houses being chiefly of mud, though some of a better kind are built of nodular limestone (*kankar*). The population, which appears to be steadily decreasing, was returned at 18,514 in 1865, at 15,570 in 1872, and at 14,306 in 1881. Classified according to religion, the population in

1881 consisted of—Hindus, 10,502; Muhammadans, 3802; and Christians, 2. Area of town site, 852 acres. The municipal revenue, mainly derived from octroi duties, which in 1875–76 was returned at £1606, had fallen in 1882–83 to £838, or by one-half; average incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head. A bridge of boats on the Jhánsi and Cawnpur road crosses the Jumna during the rainy season, from June till October, and there are besides several ferries. Good roads connect the town with Orái, Hamírpur, Bánda, Jalaun, and Jhánsi.

The western outskirt of the town, along the river-side, contains a large number of ruins, notably the tomb called the Eighty-four Domes, and twelve other handsome mausoleums. At one time the town adjoined these ruins, but it has gradually shifted south-eastward. Ganeshganj and Ternanganj, two modern quarters in that direction, at present conduct all the traffic. The buildings of the old commercial agency crown some higher ground, but are now for the most part empty. A ruined fort, situated on the steep bank of the Jumna, overhangs the *ghát*. The principal business carried on is the export of cotton, grain, etc., to Cawnpur, Mírzapur, and Calcutta, and the town, although decreasing in population, is still a great emporium of trade of the western states of Bundelkhand, *viâ* the Ságar road, and also of a river traffic up and down the Jumna. Kálpi has also sugar-candy and paper manufactures, which have a reputation throughout all Upper India. The town is the head-quarters of an extra-Assistant Commissioner, and contains, besides the usual sub-divisional courts, a police station, dispensary, and good school.

Kálpi.—Village, with large *bázár* and market-place, on the right bank of the Húglí, in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; 48 miles below Calcutta. Lat. 22° 4′ N., long. 88° 18′ E. The river at this point forms an anchorage for vessels proceeding up or down.

Kalráyan.—Mountain range in Salem District, Madras Presidency; lying between 11° 38′ and 11° 52′ N. lat., and between 78° 31′ 30″ and 78° 46′ E. long.; averaging from 3000 to 4000 feet above sea-level Inhabited almost exclusively by Malayálís, who occupy about 66 hamlets. Total population (1872) 5992; (1881) 6038. The principal part of the group is in the middle of Atúr *táluk*. This portion is divided into the Periya and Chinna (big and little) Kalráyan; the latter is held on favourable tenures by petty chiefs, who have nearly denuded it of its forests. The forests on Periya Kalráyan are now under Government care. The Malayális pay tax, not on the land, but on their ploughs and billhooks. Their great temple to Kari Ráman is on the Periya Kalráyan.

Kálsi.—Northern *tahsil* of Dehra Dún D[illegible] N[illegible]h-W[illegible] Provinces, consisting of the rugged mountain region

Area, 478 square miles, of which only 29 are cultivated. The population of the *tahsíl* was returned at 40,046 in 1872, and at 45,117 in 1881, namely, males 25,400, and females 19,717. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 44,184; Muhammadans, 726; Jains, 19; and 'others,' 188. Land revenue (1882), £2621; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £3017. In 1882-83, the *tahsíl* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 2 police stations; strength of police force, 48 men.

Kálsi.—Town in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Kálsi *tahsíl.* Lat. 30° 32′ 20″ N., long. 77° 53′ 25″ E.; situated close to the junction of the Jumna (Jamuná) with the Tons. Probably a place of great antiquity, but containing in 1881 a population of only 854 persons. *Tahsíli* school and charitable dispensary. The famous Kálsi stone, found near this place, bears an inscription of Asoka, the Buddhist emperor of Upper India (250 B.C.).

Kalsiá.—One of the Cis-Sutlej States, under the Government of the Punjab, lying between 30° 17′ and 30° 25′ N. lat., and between 77° 21′ and 77° 35′ E. long. The founder of the family was Sardár Gur Bakhsh Singh, who came from the village of Kalsiá in the Punjab proper. His son, Jodh Singh, a man of ability and prowess, effected considerable conquests in the neighbourhood of Ambálá towards the close of the last century. When the Cis-Sutlej States came under British protection, Sardár Jodh Singh, after some hesitation, followed the general example. The present Sardár of Kalsiá is Bishen Singh, a Sikh by religion, of a Punjab Ját family. The area of the State is 178 square miles; estimated revenue, £15,600. Population in 1881, 67,708, namely, Hindus, 41,636; Muhammadans, 19,930; Sikhs, 5923; Jains, 218; Christian, 1. Number of villages and towns, 179; number of houses, 11,933, of which 9311 were occupied, and 2622 unoccupied. Average density of population, 380 per square mile. Principal products—wheat, cotton, Indian corn, sugar, and saffron. The chief receives £285 per annum in perpetuity from the British Government, as compensation for the abolition of custom duties. The military force consists of 50 cavalry, 260 infantry, 3 guns, and 8 artillerymen.

Kalsubái.—Hill in Násik District, Bombay Presidency; 5427 feet high, and the most elevated point in the Deccan. Its summit is crowned by a temple, ten miles south-east of Igatpuri, a station on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. A priest of Devi Kalsu daily climbs to the temple from Indor, a village at the foot of the hill, to offer a sacrifice of fowls.

Kalu.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam, which rises near the station of Turá, in lat. 25° 29′ N., and long. 90° 22′ E., and flowing west into Goálpárá District, finally empties itself into the Brahmaputra. Its chief tributary is the Baranásí or Rangkan. During the rainy season

it is navigable by boats of 2 tons burthen from Hárígáon, on the frontier of Goálpárá District, up to Dámálgirí, which is within 12 miles of Turá.

Kalumbe (or *Kalúmar*).—The highest peak in the Bhánrer range, near Katangí, in Jabalpur District, Central Provinces; 2544 feet about sea-level. Lat. 23° 28′ N., long. 79° 47′ E.

Kalwán. — Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency, situated in the north-west of the District. Area, 554 square miles. Population (1881) 58,486, namely, 29,930 males and 28,556 females, dwelling in 187 villages, and occupying 8847 houses. Hindus numbered 43,474; Muhammadans, 735; 'others' unspecified, 14,277. Great part of the population (29,207) belong to the cultivating caste of Kunbís. The west is covered with steep bare hills, towards the east the country, though flatter and more fertile, is divided by a spur running south-east from the Sahyádris; in the south rises the high and rugged Saptáshring range, with its lower slopes fringed with teak. In 1880–81, there were 4941 holdings, averaging 24 acres in extent, and paying an average rent of £1, 16s. 4d. In the same year there were 101,336 acres under tillage, of which 66,496 acres were in grain crops (*bájra*, *jodr*, rice, and other cereals). This Sub-division, which was only separated from Khándesh District in 1874, contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 56 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 184. Land revenue, £6374.

Kalwán.—Town and head-quarters of Kalwán Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 20° 30′ 40″ N., long. 74° 3′ E. Situated in the Girna valley, 35 miles west of Málegaon. Population (1881) 2022. The climate is unhealthy. Revenue, police, and post offices. The centre of large sugar-cane gardens.

Kalyán.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 278 square miles. Population (1872) 72,556; (1881) 77,988, namely, 40,547 males and 37,441 females; density of population, 280 persons per square mile. The Sub-division is bounded on the north by the Ulhás and Bhátsa rivers; on the east by Sháhápur and Murbad; on the south by Karjat and Panwel; and on the west by the Persik range. Of the total area, 10·2 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. Of the rest, 58·8 per cent., or 100,716 acres, are arable; 7 per cent. forest, and 18 per cent. village sites, roads, ponds, and river beds. The population occupies 1 town and 222 villages, dwelling in 13,924 houses. As regards religious divisions, there are 72,248 Hindus; 5283 Muhammadans; 292 Pársis; 143 Christians; and 22 Jews. In 1879–80 there were 9322 holdings, the average area of a holding being 10½ acres, and the average rent paid by the *ráyat*, £1, 10s. In 1880–81 there were 42,108 acres under tillage, 89 per cent. of which were in grain, mostly rice. Oil-seeds, pulses, and

a small quantity of fibres occupied the remaining area. The returns of agricultural stock show 31,768 horned cattle, 43 horses, 50 asses, 2043 sheep and goats, 8775 ploughs, and 2333 carts.

The Sub-division is triangular in form, and in its western part a rich open plain. In the south and east, ranges of hills running parallel with the boundary line throw out spurs into the heart of the Sub-division. The transport of produce is facilitated by the tidal creek of the Uhlás river and by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, which intersects the Sub-division. The river Kalu is navigable by boats of ten tons for nine miles above Kalyán. There are disagreeable east winds in April and May; but although fever is prevalent in the cold season, the climate is on the whole temperate and healthy. Average rainfall, 86 inches. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 40 men. Land revenue (1882-83), £13,882.

Kalyán.—Chief town, port, and municipality of Kalyán Sub-division in Thána District, Bombay Presidency; situate at the junction of the north-east and south-east lines of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 33 miles north-east of Bombay. Lat. 19° 14′ N., long. 73° 10′ E. Population (1872) 12,804; (1881) 12,910, namely, 6976 males and 5934 females. Hindus numbered 9949; Muhammadans, 2559; Jains, 10; Christians, 15; Pársís, 258; and 'others,' 19. Municipal income (1882-83), £1331; municipal expenditure, £1245; incidence of taxation, 2s. 4d. Average annual value of sea-borne trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £163,171; exports, £151,181; total, £314,352. In 1881-82, the imports were valued at £101,482, and the exports £142,999. The railway returns show a rise in number of passengers from 294,569 in 1870 to 394,975 in 1880, and a fall in goods from 37,485 tons in 1870 to 22,177 tons in 1880. The fall in the goods traffic is due to the fact that salt is now sent from Bháyndar on the Baroda Railway direct to up-country stations. Kalyán has a large rice-husking trade carried on by about 200 Muhammadans, a few Pársís, and some Maráthás. This industry gives occupation to 2000 persons, half of whom are women. There is also a trade in salt, tobacco, and myrobalans. The six miles of streets and lanes in the town are metalled, and kept in clean condition. A ferry plies across the Ulhás to Kone on the opposite bank. The town is the head-quarters of the Sub-division; it contains 2400 houses; has a vegetable market built by the municipality; and is supplied with water from 353 wells and 8 small reservoirs. Under Muhammadan rule the town was 70 acres in extent, had eleven towers and four gates, and was surrounded by a wall. During the Maráthá war of 1780-82 Kalyán withstood a severe siege. Sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary.

The name of Kalyán appears in ancient inscriptions, which have been attributed to the first, second, fifth, or sixth centuries A D. According to the *Periplus*, Kalyán rose to importance about the end of the second century. Kosmos Indikopleustes, in the sixth century, mentions it as one of the five chief marts of Western India, the seat of a powerful king, with a trade in brass, blackwood logs, and articles of clothing. Early in the fourteenth century, the Muhammadans found Kalyán the capital of a District, and gave it the name of Islámábád. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1536. They did not garrison the town; but, returning in 1570, burnt the suburbs and carried off much booty. From this time it seems to have formed part of the Ahmadnagar kingdom; in 1636 it was transferred to Bijápur. In 1648, Sivají's general, Abáji Somadev, surprised Kalyán and took the governor prisoner. The Muhammadans recovered the town in 1660, but again lost it in 1662. In 1674, Sivají granted the English leave to establish a factory. The Maráthás in 1780 having cut off their supplies, Kalyán was seized by the British, and has since remained in their possession.

Kalyánmal.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Aurangábád *parganá* in Sítápur, from which it is separated by the Gúmtí river, on the east by Gundwá *parganá*, and on the south and west by Sandílá *parganá*. The ancient name of the place was Rathaulia, and it is said to be one of the Bráhmanical places of pilgrimage described in the *Ramáyaná*. Tradition traces the name of Rathaulia from Ráma's having halted his chariot (*rath*) here, on his return from Ceylon, in order to wash away his sin of slaying Rávana in the sacred pool of Hattia Haran. Up to five hundred years ago it was held by the Thatheras, who were driven out by a Baiswárá chief, Rájá Kumár, who ruled over 94 villages from his fort at Rathauli, the ruins of which still exist. His *náib* or deputy was a Sakarwár Kshattriya, named Nág Mal, who succeeded to the estate—according to some, after murdering his master, but according to others, by peaceable means. Two of his grandsons, Kalyán Sáh and Gog Sáh, inherited 52 villages, while a third succeeded to the remaining 42. The present *parganá* consists of the possessions of Kalyán Sáh and Gog Sáh, together with other villages in the south, which their descendants obtained possession of by driving out the Juláhas. Nearly the whole area (63 out of 72 villages) is still owned by Sakarwár Kshattriyas.

The tract possesses no marked natural features. Like all the country along the Gúmtí, its poorest side borders the river, the land gradually improving towards the central level, and falling off again as the next river is approached. Area, 63 square miles, of which 41 are cultivated. Government land revenue at time of settlement,

£4616; average incidence, 3s. 6¾d. per acre of cultivated area, or 2s. 3d. per acre of total area. The staple products are wheat and barley, which occupy two-fifths of the cultivated area; gram and *arhar* occupy another fifth, while the remainder consists of commoner grains and oil-seeds. The prevailing tenure is that known as imperfect *pattidári*, which prevails in 37 villages; 29 are *zamíndári*, and only 6 *tálukdári*. Population in 1869, 24,875; and in 1881, 28,572, namely, males 15,098, and females 13,474. The most numerous castes are Chamárs, Bráhmans, and Pásís. The Kshattriyas, who are the land-holding community, form only a very small proportion of the general population. Roads consist merely of rough cart-tracks. A fair, attended by about 14,000 persons, is held in the month of Bhadra at the sacred Hattia Haran tank, near Kalyánmal village. A numerously attended fair is also held at Kalyánmal village, in the month of Agra-háyan.

Káma (*Kámán*).—Town in Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) State, Rájputáná. —*See* KAMAN.

Káma.—Township in Thayet-myo District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 49′ to 19° 5′ N., long. 94° 45′ to 95° 14′ 20″ E. Bounded on the north by Thayet and Meng-dún townships; on the east by the Irawadi; on the south by Padaung township in Prome District; and on the west by the Arakan Yomas. Area, 575 square miles. Population (1876) 30,363; (1881) 35,383; gross revenue, £7489. Káma includes Mya-wadi, the emerald country, so called from the expiatory offerings of a royal parricide. This division was formerly the charge of a Myo-thúgyí. At the time when the Register was prepared (1783 A.D.), the Myo-thúgyíship of Káma is said to have contained 142 villages, which were divided into 5 circles and 59 village Thúgyíships. The Myo-thugyí had not, as most others of the class had, any powers of life and death, nor possessed the privilege of carrying a gold umbrella. Mya-wadi, under Burmese rule, does not appear to have been divided into revenue circles. The annual tribute exacted by the Burmese court from Káma was £857, and from Mya-wadi, £428. The population dwells in 183 villages, which again are distributed over 13 revenue circles. In 1882 the land revenue was £3528; capitation-tax, £3560; fisheries, £23; taxes on nets, £21; local cesses, £357. Area under cultivation (1881–82), 25,375 acres; of which 19,301 acres were under rice, and 1786 under tobacco. Agricultural stock (1881–82), 7929 buffaloes; 15,215 bullocks, bulls, and cows; 1657 pigs; 29 goats; 3912 carts; 6371 sledges; and 212 boats.

Káma.—Head-quarters of Káma township, Thayet-myo District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Situated in lat. 19° 1′ N., and long. 95° 10′ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi, on picturesque hills, crowned by pagodas or monasteries. Population (1872) 2943; (1881) 1796;

number of houses, 294, one of them a police station. The Ma-de stream flows through the town; and the Ma-tún enters the Irawadi a short distance above the town. All the surplus produce of the valley of the Ma-tún, consisting of tobacco, chillies, onions, cutch, and cotton, is sold at Káma. Several legends are current as to the origin of the name. According to one of these, it was a prosperous town in the days of Rek-kan, King of Prome in 250 B.C., who called it Ma-há-ga-ma, *i.e.* *ma-há* 'great,' and *ga-ma* 'a second-class city,' viz. one with a market but without walls. The great Burmese king Alompra re-christened it Káma, *i.e.* 'love' or 'desire.' It has been suggested that if the town was really called Mahágáma, it was called after the Mahágama of Ceylon, and the Maagrama of Ptolemy.

Kamadhia.—Petty State of South Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village. Situated on the east bank of the Bhádar river, 9 miles to the north-east of the Vavdi station, on the Dhoraji Branch of Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £650; no tribute is paid. Population (1881) 772.

Kámákhyá.—Hill in Kámrúp District, Assam; about 2 miles west of Gauháti, overlooking the Brahmaputra river. Lat. 26° 10′ N., long. 91° 45′ E. On the summit is a celebrated and richly endowed temple of Kámákhyá, a local name of Durgá, which has given its name to the hill. The principal annual gatherings at this shrine are the *Purush-drana* in January, to commemorate the marriage of the goddess with the god Kámeswar; the *Manasá-pujá* in August, and the *Sáradiyá-pujá* in September. All these festivals are attended by large crowds of people.

Kámákhyá.—Small range in the east of Nowgong District, Assam; situated between the Brahmaputra and its offshoot the Kalang; about 1500 feet high. On one of the hills, called the Kámákhyá Parbat, stands a temple of the goddess Durgá; and the slopes are under tea cultivation.

Kamalápuram (*Kamlapúr*).—Town in the Hospet *táluk* of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 17′ N., long. 76° 30′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 5145; (1881) 4240, namely, 2086 males and 2154 females, occupying 894 houses. Hindus numbered 3683; and Muhammadans, 557. Area, 15,185 acres. A suburb of the ancient Vijayanagar, and, until 1820, the residence of the last surviving representative of the dynasty which ruled there. Small iron-industry and sugar-boiling factories, situated 3 miles from the south bank of the Tungabhadra, at Hampi. The ruins of many temples are still visible, one of which has been converted into a bungalow. Kamalápuram is 5 miles distant from Hospet, the head-quarters town of the *táluk;* it is built beneath the embankment of a large tank, which is supplied by a channel from the river.

Kamalapuri.—Village in the Banaganapalli *táluk* of Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 551, occupying 92 houses. Hindus numbered 506; Muhammadans, 45. Area, 4537 acres. Remarkable for the local superstition that in this village all snakes are harmless, and that any person bitten elsewhere will recover if brought here and treated with a mixture of earth and water from the temple of Kamandaleswarám.

Kamálganj.—Village in Farukhábád *tahsíl*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, situated near the right bank of the Ganges, 8 miles south of Fatehgarh town, on the Gursaháiganj road. Population, 2627 in 1872, and 2898 in 1881, namely, males 1546, and females 1352. The village consists chiefly of a street of shops on either side of the Gursahaiganj road. Markets are held every Tuesday and Friday, at which, besides the usual trade in grain and cloth, there is, in the early months of the year, a large sale of *pán*, imported in large quantities from Cawnpur and other south-eastern Districts. For police and conservancy purposes, a small house-tax is levied. The village contains a first-class police station and an imperial post-office.

Kamália.—Town in Montgomery District, Punjab.—*See* KOT KAMALIA.

Kamálpur.—Guaranteed Girásiá or chiefship under the Bhopál Agency of Central India. The chief, Thákúr Madan Singh, receives a *tankhá* (or pecuniary allowance in lieu of land rights) from Sindhia, amounting to £460, paid through the Political Agent. He also holds a village in Shujáwalpur, under British guarantee, on a quit-rent of £70.

Kamalpur.—Petty State of Jháláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate tribute-payers. Situated 17 miles east of the Limri station on the Bhaunagar-Gondal Railway. Population (1881) 558. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £270; £77, 12s. is paid as tribute to the British Government.

Kamalpur.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 42′ N., long. 81° 25′ E.; situated near Karra, on the old Mughal imperial road. Kamal, a Muhammadan saint, with his son and other disciples, lies buried in the neighbourhood. Mausoleums and other ruins stud the surrounding plain.

Kámán.—Town and head-quarters of Kámán *parganá* in Bhartpur State, Rájputána, on the route from Muttra to Firozpur in Gurgáon, 39 miles north-west of Muttra town. Lat. 27° 40′ N., long. 77° 15′ E. Population (1881) 13,199, namely, 6999 males and 6200 females. Hindus numbered 11,318, and Muhammadans 1881. Situated on the north-east frontier of the State, it originally belonged to Jaipur (Jeypore), and was greatly enlarged by Rájá Kám Sen, who named it after himself. It contains many ruins, among which is a curious temple,

with 84 pillars, on which the figure of Buddhá is carved. The town is considered sacred, Krishna having resided there. It was one of the places ceded to Máharájá Ranjít Singh by General Perron in 1782. A metalled road, 13 miles long, runs between Kámán and Dig, on the route to Bhartpur. Post-office and dispensary.

Kamarjání.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Manás river. Large exports of rice and jute.

Kamar-ud-dín-nagar.—Formerly a village in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat 28° 56′ N., long. 78° 10′ E.; situated on the Ganges, 27 miles east of Meerut city. Population (1872) 574. No population figures available for 1881. The ferry at this village is much used. The river was twice crossed here by a British force in 1805, in pursuit of the retreating Amír Khán, on the occasion of his invasion of Rohilkhand. The village was swept away by floods in 1873, and no trace now remains of its former site.

Kamásin (or *Darsenda*).—*Tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and sloping up towards the Vindhyan range. Area, 359·7 square miles, of which 217·8 are cultivated. Number of villages, 161. Population (1872) 83,387; (1881) 81,238, namely, males 41,346, and females 39,892. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 78,973; Muhammadans, 2262; and 'others,' 3. Land revenue (1882), £14,028; total Government revenue, including local rates and cesses, £15,816; rental paid by cultivators, £25,700.

Kamásin.—Village and head-quarters of Kamásin *tahsíl*, Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, situated 38 miles from Bánda town. The inhabitants, below 2000 in number, consist principally of Thákurs.

Kamátápur.—Ruined city in Kuch Behar State, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 9′ 30″ N., long. 89° 22′ 15″ E. The city was founded by Rájá Níladwáj, the first king who succeeded the Pal dynasty in the government of Kámrúp. Its ruins indicate that it must have been a very extensive place. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in 1809, found that it occupied an area 19 miles in circumference, 5 of which were defended by the Dharlá, and the rest by a rampart and ditch. The city consisted of several enclosures, one within the other, the centre one being occupied by the king's palace. Kamátápur was abandoned and fell into decay after the overthrow of Rájá Nílambhar, the second successor of its founder, by Husain Sháh, Afghán King of Bengal, 1497-1521 A.D. Kamátápur figures conspicuously as Comati in some of the earlier maps of India.

Kambam (*Kambham*).—Town in Madúra District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CUMBUM.

Kambam (*Kambham*).—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CUMBUM.

Kambar (*Sháhdatpur*).—*Táluk* in Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, recently transferred from Shikárpur District; situated between 27° 28′ and 27° 59′ 30″ N. lat., and between 67° 33′ 45″ and 68° 10′ E. long. Area, 977 square miles. Population (1872) 73,329; (1881) 91,539, namely, 49,507 males and 42,032 females, dwelling in 14,125 houses. Hindus numbered 3427; Muhammadans, 81,547, or 89·1 per cent. of the total; Sikhs, 6503; aboriginal tribes, 38; Christians, 17; Jew, 1; and Buddhists, 6. Number of *tapás*, 8; towns, 1; villages, 144. Revenue in 1881–82, £22,847, of which £21,512 was derived from imperial and £1335 from local sources. Revenue (1882–83), £37,689. In 1882–83, 108,333 acres were assessed for land revenue, and 103,435 acres were under cultivation. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 43 men.

Kambar.—Chief town in the Kambar *táluk* of Upper Sind Frontier District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, recently transferred from Shikárpur District. Lat. 27° 35′ N., and long. 68° 2′ 45″ E.; distant about 12 miles by road west by north from Lárkána, chief town of the Sub-division and a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. There is also road communication with Ghaibi Dero, Sijáwal, Rato Dero, Nasírábád, Dost Alí, and Sháhdádpur. It is the head-quarters station of a *múkhtyarkár* and a *tapádár*, and, in addition to their offices, possesses a Government school, municipal hall, dispensary, *musáfir-khána*, branch post-office, and police lines for 29 men. Population (1872) 3518; (1881) 6133, namely, 3305 males and 2828 females. Hindus numbered 529; Muhammadans, 4275; and 'others,' 1329. The Kambar municipality, established in 1862, had an income in 1882–83 of £640, derived mostly from town dues, cattle-pound fees, and fisheries. Municipal expenditure, £782; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 4d. The town was plundered by the Balúchís in 1844, and almost destroyed by fire in the following year.

Kamlá.—River of Northern Behar, rising in Nepál under the first range of the Sub-Himálayas; it enters British territory near Jainagar in Darbhangah District, whence it flows in a south-easterly direction towards Kamtaul, near which it recently cut a new channel for itself into the Little Bághmatí. Its old bed runs southwards till it joins the Tíljugá, near the point where that river receives the Karái. Above Kamtaul, the Kamlá is sometimes navigable by boats of 10 tons burthen. The lower part, known as the Old Kamlá, is generally dry in the cold and hot weather (as its main current is drained off into the Little Bághmatí); but in the rains it contains a good volume of water, and is navigable by boats of about 4 tons burthen. The numerous bifurcations and interlacings of the Kamlá defy description. The

river ranks third in the District in point of size, causes the greatest floods, and is highly reverenced as a sacred stream by the Hindus.

Kamlágarh.—Fortress in Mandi State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 48′ N., and long. 76° 43′ E., near the south bank of the Biás (Beas); consisting of a range of forts, about 3 miles in length, constructed partly of masonry and partly of the natural sandstone rock. The principal stronghold crowns an isolated peak, whose precipitous sides tower 1500 feet above the Beas, with double that elevation above sea-level. Sansár Chand, Rájá of Kángra, attacked the fortifications unsuccessfully; but General Ventura, the partisan Sikh commander, succeeded in carrying them in November 1840 against the popular belief in their impregnability.

Kamoná.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 8′ N., long. 78° 10′ E. (Thornton); lies near the right bank of the East Káli Nadí, 64 miles south-east of Delhi. Population (1881) 1124. At the time of the British annexation, the Kamoná fort was held by Dunde Khán of the Lál Khání family, members of which are still the largest landed proprietors in the District. He rebelled in 1805, but although pardoned, again revolted with his son in 1807. His fort was invested and stormed, but was only carried after great slaughter. His estates were confiscated and given to a near relative, Mardán Alí Khán, the father of the present Nawáb of Chatárí, and grandfather of Sir Faiz Alí Khán of Pahásu.

Kampil.—Village in Kaimganj *tahsíl*, Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the old cliff of the Ganges, 28 miles north-west of Fatehgarh town. A Káyasth village, with a population in 1881 of 2531, namely, males 1285, and females 1246. A large number of Bráhmans also live in the village. Kampil is celebrated in the *Mahábhárata* as being the capital of Southern Panchála, and of King Draupada. Here his daughter, Draupadí, married the five Pandava brethren. The villagers still show the mound where the Rájá's castle stood, and point with pride to a small hollow called the pool or *kund* of Draupadí. They aver that the ancient city was founded by a hermit named Kampíla Rikh, and that before the days of Draupada it was ruled by a king named Brahmadatta. At the end of the thirteenth century, Kampil appears as a nest of highway robbers, against whom the Emperor Ghiyas-ud-dín Balban marched a force in person, and built here a fort in which he established an Afghán garrison. The town or its vicinity was subjected to a visitation by Muhammad Tughlak, and again in 1418 an expedition was despatched against the troublesome Rahtors of the neighbourhood. By 1452, the town had fallen into the possession of the Chauháns. After the establishment of the Mughal Empire, Kampil appears no more in history, save its

mention in Akbar's revenue survey as the chief town of a *parganá*, and such it has remained ever since. The modern village, situated at the junction of several unmetalled roads, contains a police station, post-office, and an elementary village school. Two yearly fairs are held here, in October–November and March–April. For police and conservancy purposes, a small income tax is raised.

Kampli.—Town in Hospet *táluk* of Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 24′ 40″ N., long. 76° 38′ 40″ E. Population (1871) 9610; (1881) 9828, namely, 4985 males and 4843 females, occupying 2488 houses. Area of town site, 5325 acres. In 1881, Hindus numbered 7907; Muhammadans, 1912; Christians, 8; and 'others,' 1. The town is built on the bank of the Tungabhadra, close to one of the fords where the river may be crossed, and also near an important anicut or weir for irrigation. The site is low, and it is surrounded by rice fields. Weaving, especially of silk cloth, is carried on. Sub-magistrate's court.

Kamptee.—Large town and cantonment in Nágpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* KAMTHI.

Kámrúp.—District of Assam, occupying the central portion of the Brahmaputra valley. It lies between 25° 44′ and 26° 53′ N. lat., and between 90° 40′ and 92° 12′ E. long., extending along both banks of the Brahmaputra. Kámrúp is bounded by Bhután on the north; by Darrang and Nowgong (Naugáon) Districts on the east; by the Khási Hills on the south; and by Goálpárá District on the west. Area, 3857·6 square miles. Population (according to the Census of 1881) 644,960 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of GAUHATI, on the left or south bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The general characteristics of Kámrúp are those common to the whole valley of Assam. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Brahmaputra, the land is low, and exposed to annual inundation. In this marshy tract, reeds and canes flourish luxuriantly, and rice and mustard are extensively cultivated. At a comparatively short distance from the river banks, the ground begins to rise in undulating knolls towards the mountains of Bhután on the north, and towards the Khási territory on the south. The hills south of the Brahmaputra in some parts reach the height of from 2000 to 3000 feet. It is on the slopes of these hills, amid the primeval jungle, that European planters have set out their trim tea-gardens. The general scenery of Kámrúp is thus agreeably diversified; and the villages are described as very picturesque in their position and structure.

The great river of Kámrúp is the Brahmaputra, which is navigable by steamers all the year through. It divides the District into two nearly equal portions, and receives numerous tributaries both on the north and south banks, which are themselves navigable for native boats

during the rainy season. The most important of these are the Manás, Chául-Khoyá, and Barnadí on the north; and the Kulsí on the south. The Brahmaputra exhibits the phenomena of alluvion and diluvion on a grand scale. Extensive sandbanks or islands are annually formed in some part of its wide channel, on which rank vegetation immediately springs up; but these new creations are often swept away by the floods of the following year, and their materials re-deposited lower down. Many of the minor streams which take their rise in the hills beyond the northern boundary of the District, have the peculiarity that in the dry season, near the point where they debouch upon the plains, they suddenly disappear, the water sinking into the ground. The bed, however, is found full of water again a short distance lower down, and thence flows steadily all the year. With the exception of the Brahmaputra, all the rivers are fordable at one place or other during the dry season. Swamps and marshes are thickly dotted over the low lands of the District, many of which contain water through the dry season. There are no canals or artificial watercourses, but there are a few minor embankments for the protection of the crops.

Forests cover a considerable portion of the District area, estimated at about 130 square miles. The Forest Department has reserved seven tracts, all in the south of the District, in the neighbourhood of the Kulsí river, with an aggregate area of 49 square miles; and the indiscriminate cutting of timber has been placed under restrictions. The most important of these revenue-yielding forests are—(1) Bardwár, (2) Dimruyá, (3) Pantán, (4) Mayrápur, and (5) Barámbai. The forest trees are principally *sál*, *tún*, teak, and *nahor*. There is also a Plantation Reserve, where seedlings of teak, *sál*, *sissu*, *súm*, and *nahor* are reared, and experiments are being made with the caoutchouc tree. The total expenditure of the Forest Department in 1881–82 was £2593; the income, £2789.

The wild vegetable productions of Kámrúp consist of the timber trees above mentioned, bamboos, firewood, reeds, canes, etc. The hill tribes of Lálungs, Cacharís, Garos, Míkirs, and Khásis, etc., gain a subsistence by collecting and trading in jungle products, such as lac, beeswax, fibres, dyes, gums, etc., which are found in abundance. Large pasture-grounds exist, and the Bhutiás drive down their herds of cattle to graze along the foot of the Bhután Hills. Herdsmen from Bengal also bring immense numbers of cattle to graze in the District.

Fauna.—Elephants, tigers, leopards, bears, rhinoceros, buffaloes, large deer, and wild hog are common throughout Kámrúp, especially in the north of the District, which swarms with animal life of all kinds. Wild elephants frequently do great damage to the crops; and in the winter of 1866–67, one village was abandoned in consequence of the destruction caused by them. The Cacharí villages

are usually surrounded by a stout fence to keep out wild beasts. During 1868, 129 persons were reported to have lost their lives from wild beasts, or in consequence of snake-bites. By 1882–83, the number of registered deaths from these causes had decreased to 36. The smaller varieties of game consist of hares, peacocks, wild-fowl, herons, wild geese, wild ducks of various sorts, partridges, floricans, and snipe. Among fishes, the principal varieties are the *roi* or *ruhí*, the *pithiá*, and the *chitál.*

History.—Kámrúp preserves the name of the legendary Hindu kingdom spoken of in the *Mahábhárata.* This kingdom is said to have extended, not only over the whole of the Assam valley, but from the mountains of Manipur in the east to the Karátoyá river in the west. It thus included the greater portion of the Bengal District of Rangpur. Rájá Bhagadatta, the son of Narak, whose capital was at the city of Prayága-jyostishpur (identified with the modern Gauhátí), is described in the *Mahábhárata* as espousing the cause of Dharjyudan, and being slain by the victorious Arjuna. According to the authority of the *Aín-i-Akbarí,* Bhagadatta had twenty-three successors in his dynasty; and the *Yogini Tantrá* gives a confused account of some of these monarchs. Apart from these traditions, which are the common property of Hinduism, and cannot be localized in Kámrúp, there is abundant archæological evidence to prove, that before the advent of the Ahams from the eastern mountains, Assam had been incorporated into the civilisation of India Proper. But beyond that bare fact, nothing can be predicated with certainty concerning the early Hindu inhabitants of the Brahmaputra valley. It is worthy of notice in this connection that the present District of Kámrúp contains several revered sites of Hindu pilgrimage; and that the Mahámuni temple, one of these sites, is annually visited by Buddhists from beyond the Himálayas, who regard it as sanctified by the presence of the founder of their faith.

Local tradition asserts that this tract was once ruled over by the Bara Bhuiyás, whose name would seem to indicate that they were chiefs of independent tribes. The dawn of authentic history shows us the Koch tribe, under their leader Hájo, pushing their conquests westwards from Assam into Kuch Behar Proper. The connection of Kámrúp with the advancing Muhammadan power dates from circ. 1204 A.D., when the Rájá, after making offers of friendship to Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khiljí, who did not respond, defeated the Musalmán forces. Bakhtiyar's army escaped with great difficulty. 'The armour of the Kámrúp people,' says a native historian, 'was entirely composed of bamboo tied together with silk.' Another Muhammadan writer relates of Ghiyás-ud-dín, circ. 1225, that he extended his arms from Jagannáth in Orissa to Kámrúp. Ikhtiyár-ud-dín Málik

Usbeg again invaded the territories of Kámrúp in 1256–57, seized the capital, drove the Rájá back into the mountains, raised a mosque, and was proclaimed 'sovereign of the united kingdoms of Bengal and Kámrúp.' In the rainy season, however, the Hindus poured down from the mountains, cut the banks of the rivers, flooded the whole country, defeated and mortally wounded Ikhtiyár-ud-dín Málik Usbeg, and took his whole army prisoners (1257). In 1489, Sultán Alá-ud-dín Husain Sháh successfully invaded Kámrúp, plundered the country, and appointed his son Governor of the conquered Districts. Nar Náráyan, the native king of the Kuch Behar dynasty, is known to have restored the two ruined temples of the goddess Kámákhyá and of Mahámuni, which are at the present day crowded by pilgrims from Bengal. The date of the restoration is placed at 1550. His successors were feeble princes, who divided their extensive empire, and fell an easy prey to the conquering Mughals. This was the period when the Muhammadans advanced farthest up the Assam valley. After annexing Rangpur and Goálpárá to the Province of Bengal, they established themselves for a short time in what is now Kámrúp District, where the faith of Islám still has followers. But in 1663, Mír Jumlá, the well-known general of Aurangzeb, was severely defeated by the Ahams, a race of Shan origin, who had entered the upper valley of the Brahmaputra four centuries earlier. The Ahams forthwith fortified their new conquests, by restoring the ruined earthworks of Gauhátí, whose original builders are unknown. Twice, and especially in 1682, the Mughals made endeavours to recover possession of the town; but on each occasion they were defeated with loss, and finally they were content to leave the Ahams in undisturbed possession of all Assam. The memory of these defeats long remained fresh in the minds of the Musalmáns. The later Nawábs of Bengal carefully encouraged the growth of the dense grass jungle, which naturally overgrows the banks of the Brahmaputra, in order to serve as the best defence against their Aham enemy.

The fort of Rángámátí, now in Goálpárá District, remained the extreme north-eastern outpost of the Delhi Empire. Meanwhile, the wild Ahams were beginning to fall under the enervating influences of Hinduism. Their national religion which they brought with them from their home in the remote Shan Hills, consisted of a form of demon-worship by the propitiation of evil spirits. Their old religious books are still extant, and are to be found in the hands of their priests (*deodhains*). The Ahams displayed, to an eminent degree, the faculty of adapting themselves to the manners and beliefs of their subjects; and while their dynasty endured, it was based upon very firm foundations. Chakradwáj is the name of the first Rájá who submitted himself to the Bráhmans.

The British connection with Assam dates from 1792, in which year a dispossessed Rájá besought to be restored to the throne by our assistance. A British force was accordingly sent, and replaced the Rájá on the throne, but was recalled in 1794. Internal anarchy, caused by disputed successions, prevailed for many years, until in 1808 the Rájá in possession called in the Burmese to support his claims. The Burmese came as masters rather than as servants. They set up a puppet of their own, called Jogeswar, in whose name they governed Assam as a Province of the Burmese Empire. In those days it was the British policy to exhibit indifference with regard to changes of administration that took place beyond the frontier of India; and Assam had never been recognised as an integral part of the peninsula. But in 1824, the Burmese, in assertion of their claims to universal empire, wantonly invaded the then Native State of Cachar. As an incident in the Burmese war that ensued, Assam was occupied by a British army. After being defeated in one considerable engagement, the Burmese retreated precipitately before the advance of the British troops; and in granting peace to them, we resolved to deliver the native Assamese from their oppressive yoke. The lower Assam valley was annexed to Bengal, Upper Assam being constituted a separate State under Rájá Purandar Singh. His administration proved so bad, that in 1838 it was necessary to annex the entire territory. Assam was separated from Bengal in 1874, and erected into an independent administration under a Chief Commissioner.

People.—An enumeration taken about the year 1840 returned the population of Kámrúp at 271,944 persons; a second enumeration, in 1848, raised this total to 387,775. It does not appear that either of these figures are better than mere estimates. A regular Census was conducted in 1871 by actual counting, through the agency of the *mauzádárs* or village revenue officials. The enumeration was not effected simultaneously in a single night, as was the case in Bengal, but was protracted through the greater part of the month of November. The results, which are believed to be fairly accurate, disclosed a total population of 561,681 persons, residing in 103,908 houses and in 1649 *mauzás* or unions of villages. The Census Report of 1881 returned the population at 644,960, showing an increase of 83,279, or 14·83 per cent., over the previous enumeration in 1871. Area of the District as returned in 1881, 3631 square miles, containing 2562 towns and villages, and 94,172 houses. Persons per square mile, 177·6; villages per square mile, ·70; houses per square mile, 26. The average number of persons per village is 252; of persons per house, 6·8. Classified according to sex, there are 329,061 males and 315,899 females; proportion of males, 51·0 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 15 years, 142,662 boys and 133,279

girls; total children, 275,941, or 44·3 per cent. of the total population: 15 years and upwards, males 186,399, and females 182,620; total adults, 369,019, or 55·7 per cent.

As compared with the rest of Assam, Kámrúp displays an ethnical character approximating to that of Bengal. The higher castes of Hindus, especially the Bráhmans and Kolitás, are well represented; and the considerable numbers both of Musalmáns and Vaishnavs indicate traces of early civilisation. On the other hand, the aboriginal tribes are also numerous. Among the aborigines of the Census Report, the Cacharis are returned as numbering 99,293; the Rábhás, 22,723; the Saraniyás, 4506; the Mikírs, 15,548. These are all wild tribes of Indo-Chinese origin, whose common affinities it would be difficult to trace; they unite in repudiating the caste regulations and the purity of living enjoined by Hinduism. The Gáros are returned at 7459, and the Lálungs at 3333 in number. The semi-Hinduized aborigines of the Census are mainly composed of Kochs, who number altogether 81,551. They are of Cacharí origin; but since the Bráhmans discovered a divine origin for the Kuch Behar Rájá, his tribesmen have adopted the high-sounding appellation of Rájbansí, and submit themselves in a greater or less degree to Bráhmanical rules. The Chandáls number 16,555; the Doms, 18,281, the Ahams, who constituted the dominant race as late as the beginning of the present century, now only show 546 members.

Of Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 36,336, divided between the two classes of Vaidik and Rárhí; the Rájputs, 211; the Káyasths, 7286; the Ganaks, an impure class of Bráhmans, 6582. By far the most numerous caste is the Kolitá, numbering 140,923. These are said to have supplied the priesthood to the early Koch rulers of the country, before the introduction of Bráhmanism. They possess markedly Aryan features, and occupy a respectable position as pure Sudras. The majority are now engaged in agriculture; but some profess to identify themselves, in pursuits and in origin, with the Káyasths of Bengal. The other principal Hindu castes include—Keuts or Kewats, fishermen and agriculturists, 53,203; Katánís, silk weavers by caste, but many are now cultivators, 19,348; Sunris or Shahás, spirit dealers and traders, 15,103; Salais, agriculturists, 8776; Kumbhárs, potters, 4293; Harís, goldsmiths, 4248.

Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 569,906, or 91·7 per cent.; Musalmáns, 50,452, or 8·2 per cent.; Buddhists, 690; Jains, 20; Brahmo, 1; Christians, 366, among whom are included 265 natives, converts chiefly under the charge of the American Baptist Mission; aboriginal tribes, 23,525.

Kámrúp is the head-quarters of a sect of Vishnuites, known as Mahá-

purúshiás, who are described as extremely bigoted. Among religious institutions may be mentioned the *sástras* or convents, 61 in number, maintained by grants of rent-free land guaranteed by the British Government, and each under the management of its own *gosáin* or abbot. There are also 35 *devalais*, which appear to differ from the *sástras* in being the private property of certain families called Bardeorís. In addition to these two institutions, which are of ancient origin, there are also several Bengáli Gosáins, who are said to have immigrated into Assam in the beginning of the 18th century.

The Muhammadans of Kámrúp are supposed to be descendants of the early invaders. The reforming Faráizí sect is represented, but fanaticism is not active. The religion of Islám has ceased to make any progress in the District, and the lower orders have mixed up much of Hindu superstition with their religion. Two sects or classes stand out distinctly from the rest of Muhammadans. They are the Gariás or tailors, and Mariás or braziers. These both claim to be Muhammadans by religion, but are not circumcised, and are looked upon with detestation by the more orthodox Musalmáns. They form a low and degraded class, and appear to be of aboriginal descent. They eat beef and pork indifferently, and are much addicted to drinking habits.

The Christian community consists of 101 Europeans and Eurasians, and 265 natives. The majority of the latter are Baptists, the American Baptist Mission having a station in Gauhátí town, and in a few villages along the foot of the Khásí Hills. In the town, the Native Christians are well off, being for the most part employed either as clerks in Government offices or as servants to European residents.

There is some immigration into the District, in connection with the cultivation of tea; emigration is unknown.

The chief town in Kámrúp, and the administrative head-quarters of the District, is GAUHATI, the ancient seat of the *Aham viceroy, the* Bor Phukán, which now (1881) contains 11,695 inhabitants. The Subdivisional town of BARPETA, however, contains a larger population (13,758). The remainder of the population is absolutely rural. Out of a total of 2562 towns and villages returned in the Census Report, no less than 1515 contain less than two hundred inhabitants each; 718 have from two hundred to five hundred; 277 from five hundred to a thousand; 46 from one to two thousand; and only 6 upwards of two thousand. The people evince no tendency towards urban life, but rather the reverse. After Gauhátí, the most important places are—DIWANGIRI, on the slope of the northern hills, whither the Bhutiás flock annually for trading purposes; and the temples at HAJO and KAMAKHYA, which attract many pilgrims from all parts of India, and even Buddhists from beyond the Himálayas. Another sacred site is a little rocky island in the middle of the

Brahmaputra opposite Gauháti, called UMANANDA, said to have been formed by the god Siva of the dust with which he had marked his forehead.

Under the Aham dynasty, an elaborate system of local government was organized. The names of the old officials survive at the present day in certain families, as titles of social distinction; but the *mauzádár*, or fiscal officer in charge of a *mauzá* or circle of villages, is the only personage now recognised by the Government. A representative body, resembling the *pancháyat* of the Hindus, is found among the aborigines and other low castes, under the name of *mel;* the members are called *melkis*.

The material condition of the people has much improved of late years, consequent on the demand for labour for the extension of tea cultivation, the increased rate of wages, and the spread of education and commerce. Prior to the British occupation of the Province, the mass of the population was ground down under an oppression amounting to slavery. The people are now independent and fairly prosperous, although there are but few rich men in the District. The poorer classes can all earn sufficient for their livelihood in their own villages, and they evince a great disinclination to work as labourers. The dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper consists of a cotton cloth round the waist, falling over the thighs (*dhoti*), a shirt or coat, and a cotton sheet or shawl (*chaddr*); while that of an ordinary cultivator consists merely of a narrow piece of cotton cloth round the waist, together with a large coarse cloth for the body, reaching from the neck to the knees. The dwellings of both shopkeepers and peasants are alike, being constructed of wooden posts, bamboos, grass, canes, and reeds. They are furnished with a few wooden or cane stools, a few mats, a wooden or bamboo bedstead, several baskets or rough wooden boxes, brass plates and cups, and pots for cooking and other purposes. The food of both shopkeeping and agricultural classes consists of rice, meat for those who can afford it, pulses, vegetables of many descriptions, milk, sugar, eggs, salt, oil, chillies, onions, etc. The cultivator produces almost all the necessaries of life himself, and consequently has to spend very little on food; whereas a shopkeeper holding no land has to purchase almost everything that he consumes. Allowing for the market value of the food raised by himself, it is estimated that the monthly expenses of an ordinary peasant amount to about 16s, and those of a shopkeeper to from £1 to £1, 4s.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returns the male population under the following six divisions:—Class (1) Professional, including all military and civil officials, and the learned professions, 2525; (2) domestic class, 2162; (3) commercial class, including merchants, dealers, carriers, etc., 6297; (4) agricultural and pastoral

class, 176,884; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 5083; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, etc., 136,110.

Agriculture.—The one staple harvest of the District is rice, which is grown in three different crops. The *áus*, sown broadcast on high lands, and reaped in the early summer; the *báo*, which chiefly differs from the preceding in being sown and reaped somewhat later, and grown generally on marshy lands; and the *sáli*, corresponding to the *áman* of Bengal, which is sown on low lands about June, transplanted in the following month or later, and reaped in the winter. The last of these three furnishes by far the largest portion of the food supply. On *áus* lands are also grown cold-weather crops, such as pulses and oil-seeds. The area under rice has nearly doubled within the past thirty years. The agricultural statistics for 1881–82 show only 513,606 acres under cultivation, out of a total area of more than 2⅓ millions. The cultivated area is thus distributed:—Rice, 432,029 acres; pulses, 23,181; oil-seeds, 31,966; sugar-cane, 5839; cotton, 3809; tea, 6302; miscellaneous, 10,480. It is estimated that the waste land capable of cultivation amounts to nearly twice as much as that already under the plough. Irrigation is practised by the Cacharís bordering on the Bhután frontier, who dam the hill streams, and lead the water over their fields by small artificial channels. Manure is nowhere used. The principle of the rotation of crops is unknown, but it is customary to allow *áus* land to lie fallow. The agricultural stock of the District in 1882–83 is approximately returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 301,136; horses and ponies, 1486; donkeys, 13; sheep and goats, 34,555; and pigs, 35,478.

The State is the supreme landlord throughout Assam, and settles its land revenue demand directly with the cultivators. The number of tenants in Kámrúp in 1874–75 amounted to 109,504; in addition to whom there are the *nisf-khirájdárs*, who pay half the ordinary rates for cultivated land. Since 1867, the following have been the rates of rent charged, which show an increase of about twofold on those previously current:—*Bástu*, or homestead lands, 6s. an acre; *rupit*, or moist lands, 3s. 9d. an acre; *pharingháti*, or dry lands, 3s. an acre. The total annual produce of an acre of *rupit* land is returned at about 11½ cwts. of rice from the *sáli* harvest, valued at about £1, 2s. 6d.; *pharingháti* land yields about 8½ cwts. of *áus* rice, and 3½ cwts. of oil-seeds or pulses, valued altogether at about £1, 7s.

Ordinary coolies are paid at the rate of 12s. a month; agricultural labourers, 4½d. a day; skilled artisans receive as much as 1s. a day. It is found extremely difficult to obtain coolies for Government employment. Nearly all the inhabitants of the District are engaged in tilling their own little plots, and they can take up spare land in

abundance at easy rates. Moreover, there is a deeply rooted prejudice in Assam, handed down from the days of Aham taskmasters, that to work for Government entails irremediable disgrace. Young men prefer to emigrate to remote tea plantations, rather than assist in constructing a road near their own villages. The average price of common rice is about 2s. 8d. a cwt.; fine rice from Bengal fetches as much as 8s. a cwt. Indian corn sells at half a farthing per ear, sugar-cane at one farthing per cane. During the Orissa famine of 1866, the highest price reached by common rice was 8s. 10d. a cwt.

The only natural calamity to which Kámrúp is exposed is flood. Drought and blight are alike unknown. The rising of the Brahmaputra, and of the minor rivers, annually lays under water a considerable portion of the country; but these inundations have never been known to affect the general harvest, because the flooded area is only occasionally cultivated in patches. There are ten important lines of embankment in the District of old date, and a demand exists for more of these protective works.

The means of communication are amply sufficient to prevent a local scarcity from at any time intensifying into famine. The main stream of the Brahmaputra, intersecting the District, is at all seasons navigable by steamers. During the rains, nearly every village is accessible by boat; and during the rest of the year, the country roads are in fair order. These roads usually run along the ridges of old embankments, and cross the rivers by wooden bridges. The Assam Trunk Road, under the management of the Public Works Department, runs through the south of the District for a distance of 96 miles. The Trunk Road along the northern bank of the Brahmaputra is now in bad repair, and hardly at all used. The new cart road from Gauhátí to Shillong in the Khásí Hills, the administrative head-quarters of the Province of Assam, runs through Kámrúp District for a distance of 15 miles as far as the Kalang river. But the main goods traffic is nearly all carried by the trading steamers on the Brahmaputra.

Manufactures, etc.—Manufactures can hardly be said to exist in Kámrúp. In each family there is a rough loom, on which the women weave from silk and cotton the articles required for domestic use. There is a special class called Mariás, who support themselves by making brass cups and plates. The cultivation and manufacture of tea is conducted almost solely by European capital and under European supervision, but the soil and climate are not so favourable as in Upper Assam. The statistics for 1881 show 145 plantations, with 6186 acres under cultivation; the out-turn was 955,509 lbs.; 16 European planters or assistants were employed, with 172 imported and 1197 local labourers.

The trade of the District is mainly in the hands of Ka[illegible]

merchants from Rájputána (chiefly from Bíkaner), and of Muhammadan shopkeepers. The latter confine their operations to the towns of Gauhátí and Barpetá. The main thoroughfare of trade is the Brahmaputra, which is always open to steamers and large boats. Business is conducted at a few permanent *bázárs*, and at weekly *háts* or markets. Three large trading fairs are held in the course of the year. The chief export from the District consists of oil-seeds and timber; cotton and various jungle products are also despatched down the Brahmaputra. The articles received in exchange are Bengal table-rice, salt, piece-goods, sugar, betel-nuts, cocoa-nuts, and hardware.

The American Baptist Mission at Gauhátí is the only institution established in the District.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the total revenue of Kámrúp amounted to £119,980, towards which the land-tax contributed £79,726, or 66 per cent., and *abkárí* or excise, £30,412, or 25 per cent.; the total expenditure was £113,729, of which £15,577 was for charges of collection, £20,622 for the Military Department, and £48,400 for Public Works. In 1881-82, the total revenue had increased to £125,004 (of which £90,777 was derived from the land); while the expenditure had decreased to £51,612. The land revenue is collected directly from the cultivators, as throughout the rest of Assam proper. The receipts from the land have nearly quadrupled within the last thirty years. In 1850, the land revenue realized £24,745; by 1881 this had increased to £90,777. In addition, a house-tax, a relic of the ancient revenue system, still levied from the nomadic cultivators along the foot of the Bhután Hills, at the rate of 4s. per house, yielded £154 in 1881-82.

In 1881, there were 7 magisterial and 5 civil courts open, besides 10 honorary magistrates with limited jurisdiction. In 1881, the regular police force numbered 295 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £4631. These figures show 1 policeman to every 13·07 square miles, or to every 2186 of the population. In addition, there is a municipal police of 39 men in Gauhátí town. There are no *chaukídárs*, or village watch, in any part of Assam proper. The District contains one jail and one sub-divisional lock-up. In 1881, the daily average number of prisoners was 304, of whom 298 were labouring convicts, showing 1 person in jail to every 2121 of the population. The total cost amounted to £1549, or £5, 2s. 10d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £87. The prison death-rate was 11·05 per thousand.

Education has made more progress in Kámrúp than in any other part of Assam. In 1856 there were 26 schools in the District, with 74 pupils. In 1870 these numbers had risen to 66 schools, with 2114 pupils; by 1872, after the introduction of Sir G. Campbell's reforms,

the schools had further increased to 146, and the pupils to 3969; and by 1882, when that system had received full development, the schools numbered 232, and the pupils 6297. These last figures show 1 school to every 16 square miles, and 9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1882 the school expenditure was £4455, towards which Government contributed £1882. The chief educational establishment is the High School at Gauháti.

Kámrúp District is divided into two administrative Sub-divisions, and 10 *thánás* or police circles. The number of fiscal divisions in 1881–82 was returned at 128, with 74 estates or tracts under a separate *mauzádár* or revenue collector. The only municipality in the District is Gauháti town, with an area of 2 square miles, and a population of 11,695 persons. In 1880–81, the municipal revenue amounted to £2927, the average rate of taxation being 2s. 3⅝d. per head.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the District does not differ from that common to the whole of the Assam valley. The neighbourhood of Gauháti is exceptionally unhealthy, being shut in between the Brahmaputra and a semicircle of low hills, but much has recently been done in the way of sanitary improvements. The mean annual temperature is returned at 76° F., the thermometer seldom rising higher than 90°. The annual rainfall at Gauháti over a period of about thirty years has averaged 69·64 inches. The total rainfall in 1881 was 72·12 inches, or 2·48 inches above the average. The prevailing direction of the wind is from the north-east. During the cold weather, fogs gather daily in the early morning over the valley of the Brahmaputra.

The endemic diseases are malarious fevers, dysentery, diarrhœa, splenitis, scorbutis, and various forms of leprosy. Cholera, also, periodically makes its appearance in an epidemic form. Small-pox is said to be giving way before the growing practice of vaccination. It has been observed that the universal habit of opium-eating renders the natives less capable than elsewhere of recovering from the attacks of disease. Vital statistics are collected in Assam by the *mauzádárs*, a somewhat less inefficient agency than the *chaukidárs* of Bengal. In 1881, their returns showed a death-rate of 14·9 per thousand. Out of a total of 9614 deaths reported, 1503 were assigned to cholera, 988 to bowel complaints, 5725 to fevers, and 429 to small-pox. There are two dispensaries in the District, one at Gauháti and the other at Barpetá, which were attended in 1881 by 257 in-door and 3630 out-door patients; the total income was £335, towards which Government contributed £14. Kámrúp is liable to be ravaged by several forms of cattle disease, of which that known as *maur*, and described as a combination of cholera and dysentery, is especially fatal. [For further information regarding Kámrúp, see the *Statistical Account of Assam*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. i. pp. 17–100 (London, Trübner & Co., 1879);

A Descriptive Account of Assam, by W. Robinson (1841); *Report on the Province of Assam*, by A. J. Moffat Mills (Calcutta, 1854). See also the *Assam Census Report for* 1881, and the several Annual Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Kámsoli Motí and **Kámsoli Náni.**—Petty estates of the Sankhera Mehwás, Gori group, in Rewá Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Together with Jirál, these estates are owned by the same three proprietors who hold the latter. The area of the three estates together amounts to 5 square miles. The revenue derived from Kámsoli Moti is £120, and the tribute paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £13. The revenue from Kámsoli Náni is £100, and the tribute to the Gáekwár, £12. The revenue of Jirál is £170, and the tribute to the Gáekwár, £7. Owing to disputes among the shareholders, the estates have been under British management since 1870.—*See* JIRAL.

Kamtá Rajaula.—Petty State under the Bundelkhand Agency, Central India. Area, 4 square miles. Population (1881) 1543, namely, Hindus, 1519, and Muhammadans, 24. Estimated revenue, £300. Kamtá is a celebrated place of Hindu pilgrimage, being one of the places where Ráma is said to have stayed during his wanderings. The chief, Ráo Bharat Prasád, is a Hindu Káyasth. He holds a *sanad* of adoption.

Kamtaránála.—State forest, thickly wooded with *sál*, in Ráipúr District, Central Provinces, lying along an affluent of the Jonk river. Area, 25 square miles.

Kámthá.—*Zamíndárí* estate in Tirorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, paying a quit-rent to Government of £4580, and comprising 126 villages, with 13,511 houses. Area, 271 square miles. Population (1881) 78,816, namely, males 38,891, and females 39,925. Conferred more than a century ago on a Kunbí family, it was confiscated on their rebelling against the Rájá of Nágpur in 1818, and granted to the ancestor of the present chief, a Lodhí, whose family, by payment of heavy fines, acquired the *zamíndárí* tenure or chiefship.

Kámthá.—Village in Kámthá estate, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 31′ N., long. 80° 21′ E. Population (1881) 1612, chiefly agricultural. The chief of Kámthá has a handsome residence, surrounded by a wall and moat. He provides the conservancy, and has built a large dispensary at his sole expense. The dispensary, however, was allowed to fall out of repair, and the establishment has been removed to Tirorá on the line of railway. Government school, District post-office.

Kámthí (*Kamptee; Kámpti*).—Large town and cantonment in Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 13′ 30″ N., long. 79° 14′ 30″ E.; nine miles north-east of Nágpur city, immediately below the junction

of the Kanhán with the Pench and Kolár rivers. Population (1877) 48,831; (1881) 50,987, namely, males 26,344, and females 24,643. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 36,364; Muhammadans, 11,076; Christians, 2396; Jains, 380; Kabírpanthís, 11; Pársís, 39; and aboriginal tribes, 721. The town and cantonments form one municipality, but affairs are managed by separate committees. Total municipal income in 1882-83, £6521, of which £6245 was derived from octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 5⅝d. per head.

The military lines and *bázárs* are laid out along the right bank of the Kanhán on the principle of a camp, except that the cavalry are on the extreme left. A broad road, about four miles long, runs right through, and is maintained at the expense of the cantonment fund. In 1870, the military force, which till recently was a first-class brigade command, belonging to the Madras establishment, consisted of three batteries of European artillery, a regiment of Native cavalry, a regiment of European infantry, and a regiment and a half of Native infantry. The strength of the European troops has lately been reduced, and now there is only one battery of European artillery stationed at Kámthí. An extensive parade ground, south-east of the cantonment, separates it from the town, which is built in broad and regular streets, and in 1881 contained 14,391 houses. A considerable trade is carried on in cattle, country cloth, salt, and European piece-goods. The Márwárís have the grain trade almost entirely in their hands. There is also a brisk traffic in timber, floated down the rivers to the town. The latest town improvements are—an excellent masonry tank, constructed partly at the cost of Bansílál Abírchand Rái Bahádur, an influential resident; the Temple Gardens, for recreation; a good *sarái*; and a large central market-place.

A fine bridge, erected at a cost of about £90,000, spans the Kanhán river at the east end of the cantonment, and is crossed by the Nágpur and Chhatísgarh State Railway, which has a station at Kámthí. The town has its dispensary, schools, and *dharmsálás* for travellers; and the cantonment contains a large building used for public purposes There is a commodious Protestant church, built in 1833; and a Roman Catholic establishment of the order of St. Francis de Sales, with a convent and church; in addition to 5 Muhammadan mosques and 70 Hindu temples.

Kámthí dates only from the establishment of the cantonment in 1821. It used to be thought unhealthy, but, owing to sanitary improvements, the death-rate of late years has greatly decreased. The supply of water is drawn chiefly from the Kanhán, supplemented by a large tank and 460 wells.

Kán.—River of Málwá, Central India.—*See* KHAN.

Káná-Dámodar.—Watercourse in Húglí District, Bengal; formerly one of the main outlets of the Dámodar into the Húglí. It branches off from the present Dámodar near the point where the Káná *nadí* leaves that river, and flows southwards through Húglí District parallel to the Dámodar. In the lower portion of its course it is known as the Kánsoná *khál*, under which name it enters the Húglí river about 5 miles above Ráipur and 1 mile north of Ulubária.

Kanáigirí.—Fort in Nellore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KANIGIRI.

Káná-nadí.—Watercourse in Húglí District, Bengal; formerly the main channel of the Dámodar, but now a petty stream. It branches off from the present Dámodar near Salímábád in South Bardwán, whence it flows south-east and east through Húglí District till it joins the Ghiá *nadí*, when, under the name of the Kunti *nadí* or Nayá-sarái *khál*, it falls into the Húglí river at Nayá-sarái, thus establishing a connection between the Dámodar and the Húglí. A cutting was recently made through the silted-up mouth of this river; the silt having shut off the villages from their water-supply. It now carries off a considerable portion of the Dámodar water, and is largely made use of for irrigation.

Kanandagúdi.—Town in the Tanjore *táluk* of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 10° 39′ N., long. 79° 20′ E. Population (1871) 2840; (1881) 1779, occupying 236 houses. Hindus numbered 1700, and Christians 79. Formerly an important station of the S. P. G. Mission.

Kánara (*Canara*), **North.**—District of Bombay Presidency, in the western Karnátic, between lat. 13° 52′ and 15° 31′ N., and between long. 74° 10′ and 75° 7′ E. Bounded on the north by Belgáum District; on the east by Dhárwár District and Mysore State; on the south by South Kánara, in the Madras Presidency; on the west for about 76 miles by the Arabian Sea; and on the north-west by the territory of Goa. Area, 3911 square miles. Population (1881) 421,840 persons. Chief town and seaport, KARWAR. The District is not to be confounded with the District of South Kánara in Madras. North Kánara is the most southerly of the coast Districts of the Bombay Presidency.

Physical Aspects.—The SAHYADRI range of the Western Gháts, varying in height from 2500 to 3000 feet, runs through the District from north to south, dividing it into two parts, viz. the uplands or Bálághát (area, about 3000 square miles), and the lowlands or Payanghát (area, about 1300 square miles). The coast-line is only broken by the Kárwár headland in the north, and by the estuaries of four rivers and the mouths of many smaller streams, through which the salt water finds an entrance into numerous lagoons winding several miles inland. The shore, though generally sandy, is in some parts rocky. Fringing its

margin, and behind the banks of the brushwood-bordered lagoons, rise groves of cocoa-nut palms, and inland from this line of palms stretches a narrow strip of level rice land. The whole breadth of the lowlands, never more than 15 miles, is in some places not more than 5 miles From this narrow belt rise a few smooth, flat-topped hills, from 200 to 300 feet high; and at places it is crossed by lofty, rugged, densely-wooded spurs, which, starting from the main range of the Sahyádri Hills, maintain almost to the coast a height of not less than 1000 feet. Among these hills lie well-tilled valleys of garden and rice land. The plateau of the Bálághát is irregular, varying from 1500 to 2000 feet in height. In some parts the country rises into well-wooded knolls, in others it is studded by small, isolated, steep hills. Except on the banks of streams and in the more open glades, the whole is one broad waste of woodland and forest. The open spaces are dotted over with hamlets or parcelled out into rice clearings.

Stretching across the watershed of the Sahyádri Hills, North Kánara contains two sets of rivers—one flowing west to the Arabian Sea, the other east towards the Bay of Bengal. Of the eastern streams, the Warda, a tributary of the Tungabhadra, alone calls for mention. Of those that flow westwards, four are of some importance—the Kálí in the north, the Gangáwáli and Tadri in the centre, and the Shiráwati in the south. The last of these, plunging over a cliff 825 feet in height, about 35 miles above the town of Honáwár, forms the famous Gersoppa Falls. Along the coast, the quality of the water is good, and the supply throughout the year abundant. Total number of wells in 1881, 25,744.

The prevailing rocks are granite and trap, the former largely predominating. At the base of the granite hills, laterite formation is common. Along the coast from Kárwár to Honáwár, the surface rock is almost entirely hard laterite, a stone admirably adapted for building purposes. Iron-ore occurs in some portions of the District, and limestone is found in the valley of Yán, about 18 miles from Kúmpta (Coompta).

The forests of North Kánara give its character to the District. They flourish both below and above the line of the Sahyádri Hills, and have, during past years, yielded an average annual net revenue of £39,307. Though all the forests contain many varieties of trees, they may be arranged in three classes, severally distinguished by the predominance of *ain* (Terminalia tomentosa), teak (Tectona grandis), and the Karvi bush. Along the Kálí river and its affluent, the Renery, stretch fine forests of teak trees, with smooth, shapely stems, rising without a branch to a height of 70 feet. The working of the reserves is under the direct charge of the Forest Department. Each season, the trees suited for felling are marked by the forest officers; when cut, is removed by contract to a depôt, and

auction. The cultivators are allowed to gather dry wood for fuel, and leaves for manure, and to cut bamboos and brushwood for their huts and cattle-sheds. They are also supplied, free of charge, with such timber as they require for their own use. In former years, most of the produce of the Kánara forests went westwards to the sea-coast, finding its chief markets in Bombay and Gujarát (Guzerát). Of late years the sea trade has fallen off, and the bulk of the timber is now taken eastward to the open country in and beyond Dhárwár.

Kánara is almost the only part of the Bombay Presidency abounding in wild animals. Tigers, common and black leopards, bears, hyænas, wild dogs, bison, *sámbhar*, and wild hog are still numerous. Several varieties of deer, porcupines, hares, jackals, foxes, and wild cats are also to be found. Of winged game there are pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, florican, spur-fowl, partridges, snipe, quail, duck, widgeon, and teal.

History.—The early history of the North Kánara District is included in the succeeding article on SOUTH KANARA. Until 1861, North Kánara formed part of the Presidency of Madras. In that year, on the ground of its nearness to Bombay and the close mercantile relations existing between the Bombay merchants and the traders of Kárwár, Kúmpta, and Honáwár, the District was transferred to the Bombay Presidency.

Population, etc.—The Census of 1872 disclosed a total population of 398,406 persons, residing in 1065 villages and 91,593 houses; density of population, 94 per square mile; houses per square mile, 21; persons per village, 374; persons per house, 4·35. The Census of 17th February 1881 discovered a population of 421,840; so that in the nine years since the previous Census the population had increased by 23,434. The population (421,480) occupied 7 towns and 102 villages, dwelling in 68,832 houses; average density, 107·9 persons per square mile. Classified according to sex, there were, in 1881—males 223,005, and females 198,835; proportion of males, 52·8 per cent. Towns and villages per square mile, 0·28; houses per square mile, 19·1; persons per house, 6·12. Of the whole population, 153,214, or 36 per cent., are under 15 years of age. The religious classification shows 381,328 Hindus, 24,282 Musalmáns, 17 Pársís, 14,509 Christians, 1669 Jains, 25 Jews, and 10 Buddhists. Among Hindus, the most noteworthy class is the Havik Bráhmans (63,865), who make their livelihood by spice and areca-nut gardens. Rájpúts number 344; Kunbís, 51,057; Kumbhárs, 2161; Lohars (blacksmiths), 834; Mahar or Dhers, 15,785; Sonárs (goldsmiths), 10,158; Sutars, 3220; Telís (oilmen), 1971; 'other' Hindus 231,933. Muhammadans are distributed as follows:—Patháns, 2155; Sayyids, 2773; Shaikhs, 18,954; 'others,' 400.

Besides the regular Muhammadan population (descendants of local converts to Islám), generally in poor circumstances, employed chiefly in agriculture and by Government as messengers and police, there are, in Kánara, two special bodies of foreign Muhammadan settlers. Of these, the most important and well-to-do are the Naváyatás or seamen, representatives of the colonies of Arab merchants, of whom a remnant still exists along the whole coast-line of the Bombay Presidency, from Gogo southwards. The other foreign Musalmán community is the Sidis, descendants of African slaves formerly owned by the Portuguese. Although they have intermarried for several generations with the low-caste population of the District, the Sidis have not lost their original peculiarities. They still possess the woolly hair and black skin of the pure negro. They are for the most part very poor, and, settled in remote forests, live on the produce of little patches of rude cultivation.

The Christians in the District, who are almost all Roman Catholics, belong to two classes, of which the first consists of a few families from Goa, of Portuguese extraction, though much mixed by intermarriage with the natives of the country, the second are descendants of local converts to Christianity. Christians of the higher class are clerks, the rest principally artisans and labourers. The total number of Christians in 1881 was 14,509, of whom 14,390 were Roman Catholics, 62 Presbyterians, and 39 Episcopalians, 2 Lutherans, and 16 'other' Protestants.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 distributed the males into the following six main groups.—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description and the learned professions, 6217; (2) domestic class, including servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 3986; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 4343; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 97,514; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 21,366; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 89,579.

Of the 1109 towns and villages in North Kánara District, 547 contained in 1881 a population of less than two hundred; 382 from two to five hundred; 111 from five hundred to one thousand; 47 from one to two thousand; 8 from two to three thousand; 6 from three to five thousand; 6 from five to ten thousand; and 2 from ten to fifteen thousand.

There are famous Jain temples at Gersoppa and Bhatkal, and forts of some antiquity at Mirján and Sadáshivgad. Gokarn and Banwási, also, have fine old granite temples.

Agriculture, etc.—Agriculture gives employment to 260,897 persons, or 61·84 per cent. of the entire population. Of the total number, 150,059 are returned as 'workers,' and the remainder as 'dependants. The cultivated portions of the low lands are either sandy plains, lying

along the shore and the banks of rivers, or narrow, well-watered valleys, which are for the most part planted with rice, cocoa-nut groves, and areca or betel-nut gardens. In the uplands, the soil is generally a stiff clay, retentive of moisture. Owing to the want of inhabitants, and also to the malarious climate, many fertile and well-irrigated valleys lie waste, and covered with forest. North Kánara has not yet (1884) been surveyed, and no trustworthy statistics are available as to the area under cultivation or that devoted to the different crops. An approximate estimate in 1872 returned the area under tillage at 333,175 acres, or 12·2 per cent. of the total area of the District as then constituted.

Rice, of which there are many varieties, is the staple crop. *Rágí* (Eleusine corocana), sugar-cane, and safflower are also grown to a considerable extent; and cocoa-nuts, areca-nuts, the lesser cardamoms (Elettaria Cardamomum), and pepper are produced in gardens in large quantities for home consumption and for export. The culture of chayroot is still very limited, but its red, black, and chocolate dyes are coming into repute in Europe. Cochineal is largely exported to England. Coffee is grown to a very small extent; and, compared with the system followed by European planters in the Wynád and Mysore State, its cultivation is slovenly. Rice and garden lands are irrigated, the water being obtained from perennial streams. Near villages, especially on the coast, there are groves and avenues of Alexandrian laurel, which attains a large size. The cocoa-nut palm (Cocos nucifera) is common along the coast, and is the chief liquor-yielding tree in the District. The approximate area of land under cocoa-nut palms is 13,700 acres, which at a rough average of 100 trees per acre gives a total of 1,370,000 trees. In 1882–83, the tapping fee was six shillings per tree. Palms grown solely for their nuts are calculated to yield on good coast garden land a net yearly profit of about £5. The areca-nut gardens, which are situated in the upland valleys, are surrounded by strong fences, within which are planted rows of cocoa-nut, jack, and mango trees. The *pán* or betel-leaf creeper (Piper betle) is extensively grown; also the areca palm. The upland gardens also contain pepper, cardamoms, ginger, plantains; and sometimes pumelo, orange, lime, and iron-wood trees (*nág-chámpa*) (Mesua ferrea) are found in these higher tracts.

Formerly, in the most open parts of the forest, nomadic cultivation by brushwood burning (*kumári*) was carried on, principally by tribes of Maráthá extraction. In the cold season, the hillmen used to cut down the bushes and lower branches of the larger trees, and burn them before the rains set in. In some places the seed was sown in the ashes on the fall of the first rains, the soil having been untouched by implements of any kind.

Compared with the rest of Bombay, the greater part of North Kánara has hitherto nominally been in the hands of large proprietors. But since the introduction of the Revenue Survey, the ease with which land can be divided has shown that many of the large estates were in reality groups of moderate-sized holdings. In 1882–83, the agricultural stock of the District consisted of 286,365 horned cattle, 454 horses, 116 asses, 7020 sheep and goats, 45,539 ploughs, and 4561 carts.

Commerce, etc.—The District contains 12 ports, of which five—Kárwár, Kúmpta, Ankola, Bhatkal, and Honáwár—are important. Out of £1,841,173 (the total value of the trade at these ports in 1876), £1,199,077 represented exports, and £642,096 imports. In 1881, the value of the imports into Kárwár alone, the chief town and port of the District, was £189,776; and the value of the exports in the same year, £272,714. Rice, cotton, timber, cocoa-nuts, and spices are the principal articles of export. The cotton comes from Dhárwár, Mysore, Bellary, and the Nizám's Dominions, and is shipped from Kárwár and Kúmpta. The chief articles of import are piece-goods, silk, metal, sugar, and spirits. The Kárwár and Kúmpta carvers in sandal-wood and ebony have successfully exhibited their workmanship at many Industrial Exhibitions in Europe. Salt, made from January to June in lands rented from Government, is one of the chief manufactures. Oil-pressing from cocoa-nuts is also an important industry. Government sawmills are situated near Yellápur in the heart of the forest. Lighthouses are situated at KARWAR, KUMPTA, and OYSTER ROCK (*q.v.*). The most important annual fairs are at Gokarn, Sirsi, and Ulvi in Supa. The principal lines of road are from Kádra to Belgáum *viâ* Supa, from Kárwár to Dhárwár *viâ* Yellápur, from Kúmpta to Dhárwár *viâ* Sirsi, and the coast road from Ankola to Belki. Besides these trunk roads many branch lines have been made. Rates of interest vary according to the credit of the borrower, from 12 to 24 per cent. per annum. Except a few Christians, the labouring classes are almost all Hindus.

The daily wages of unskilled labour vary from 3d. to 6d., and of skilled labour from 1s. to 2s. The hire of carts per diem is from 2s. to 4s. each; and of boats, 1s. 6d. to 6s. The current prices, per *maund* of 80 lbs., of the chief articles of food during 1882–83 were—rice, 8s. 6d. for the best, and 6s. 10d. for the second quality; wheat, 6s. 6d.; millets, 5s.; gram, 6s. 6d.; salt, 6s. 7d.; *dál*, or split pease, 7s. 4d.; *ghí*, £3, 14s. 9d.

Administration.—The total gross imperial revenue of North Kánara District amounted in 1882–83 to £147,780. The land-tax, as elsewhere throughout India, forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £88,316. Excise duties brought in £12,873; stamps, £6991; forest produce, £47,720. The District local funds, created since 1863 for

works of public utility and rural education, amounted to £7312. There are 6 municipalities with an aggregate municipal population of 39,757, and a total income (1882–83) of £3948; municipal expenditure, £4033; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 7d. per head of the population. The administration of North Kánara, in revenue matters, is entrusted to a Collector and two Assistants, who are covenanted civilians, with a Deputy Collector for treasury work.

For the settlement of civil disputes there are 5 courts; 26 officers share the administration of criminal justice. The average distance of villages from nearest court is 10 miles. Total strength of the regular police, 662 officers and men, averaging 1 man to every 5·9 square miles and to every 636 persons. Yearly cost of police, £11,192, being £2, 17s. 2d. per square mile, and 6¼d. per head of population.

Education has spread widely of late years. In 1865–66 there were 16 schools, attended by 929 pupils; by 1882–83 the number of schools had risen to 121, with 8351 pupils, or nearly 2 per cent. of the population, averaging 1 school for every 9 inhabited villages. There are three libraries or reading-rooms in the District, one at Kárwár of considerable size, one at Kúmpta, and one at Sirsi. There is also a printing press in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The rainfall varies on the coast from 100 inches a year at Kárwár to 163 at Kúmpta. In the uplands the rainfall is less, being on an average about 72 inches. Fever of a severe type is the prevalent disease. In 1860, a severe epidemic of fever broke out, and, gradually spreading over the whole District, extended eastwards into the rice tracts of Dhárwár. During 1861 and 1862, the fever raged with great severity both along the sea-coast and in the Dhárwár and Hubli Sub-divisions. The Sanitary Commissioner to the Bombay Government was deputed to investigate the cause, but no definite results were arrived at. The people believed that the appearance of the disease was recurrent in cycles of eighty Jupiter or sixty solar years, together with the flowering of the bamboo. The bamboo has, however, since then flowered and died throughout the District, but no increase in the local fever is apparent. During 1872, small-pox was very prevalent. In 1881, 9 dispensaries afforded relief to 988 in-door and 36,981 out-door patients, and in 1882–83, 11,802 persons were vaccinated. The death-rate in 1882 was returned at 25·6 per thousand; but this must be considerably below the truth, as the average for the previous five years was 40 per thousand. [For further information regarding North Kánara, see the *Bombay Gazetteer*, vol. xv. parts I. and II., published under Government orders (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1883). Also *Selections from the Records of the Bombay Government*, No. clxiii., 1883; the *Bombay Census Report* of 1881; and the several

Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Presidency from 1880 to 1883.]

Kánara (*Canara*), **South.**—District in the Madras Presidency; situated on the western coast, between 14° 31′ and 15° 31′ N. lat., and between 74° 1′ and 75° 2′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by North Kánara (Bombay Presidency), on the south by Malabár, on the east by Mysore State and Coorg, and on the west by the Indian Ocean. Area, 3902 square miles. Population (1881) 959,514. The administrative head-quarters and chief town is MANGALORE.

Physical Aspects.—South Kánara is intersected with streams, and, from the broken nature of the country, the scenery is most varied and picturesque. Abundant vegetation, extensive forests, numerous groves of cocoa-nut palms along the coast, and rice-fields in every valley, give refreshing greenness to the prospect. The most densely inhabited tract, which is situated along the seaboard from north to south of its entire length, and extends into the interior for from 5 to 25 miles, may be roughly described as a broken table-land of laterite, the height of which varies from 200 to 400 feet near the coast and rises to 600 feet towards the Western Gháts. Inland, this so-called table-land is bounded by the lower spurs running down from the Gháts. These spurs, which are numerous and of every conceivable form, are for the most part forest-clad, and consist, like the parent mountains, of gneiss, schist, quartz, hornblende, and granite. Of detached mountains, properly so called, there are none; but the rock of Jamalábád, near Beltangadi, and the hill known as the Ass's Ears, are well-known landmarks. The laterite downs near the coast are furrowed in every direction by numerous valleys of rich alluvial soil, by which the heavy rainfall of the south-western monsoon drains away. The laterite itself is an iron clay lying on the top of a granite bed. The granite is found at the base of every river, and constantly breaks above the surface of the laterite in round conical hills, sometimes covered with small trees, and in other places naked and bare.

The Western Gháts, rising from 3000 to 6000 feet, form a bulwark and boundary on the eastern side of the District. They are crossed by several passes. The chief of these passes are the Sampaji, Agumbi, Charmádi, Haidargadi or Hassangadi, Manjarábád, and Kolúr, all of which connect the plateau of Mysore and Coorg with the lowlands of South Kánara. Up to these passes, good cart roads lead from Mangalore.

None of the rivers of the District exceeds 100 miles in length. All take their rise in the Western Gháts, and, owing to the unfailing and heavy monsoon, become raging torrents at one time of the year and sluggish streams at another. Many of them are navigable during the dry season for from 15 to 25 miles from the coast, and admit of a

considerable boat traffic, which brings down to the coast the coffee and other produce of Mysore and Coorg, and the rice grown in the interior. The principal of these rivers are the Netrávati, the Gurpúr, the Gangoli (or Gurget-hole), and the Chendragiri (or Puiswinni). From the nature of the country, with its numberless streams and their uncertain fords, the loss from drowning every year is considerable, the annual average number of deaths being 130. Owing to the rapid fall of the streams, especially in the interior, water might be used as a motive power without difficulty, but it is not so applied by the people. There is a small and pretty lake at Kárkal, and an undrained fresh-water lagoon at Kundapur.

The District is rich in a fine clay, well adapted for pottery, and several firms are engaged in the manufacture of machine-made tiles, etc. Kaolin is also of frequent occurrence underlying the laterite. Gold is found in small quantities at Mijár, garnets at Subramanya and Kemphalla. Iron exists in the Udipi and Uppárangadi *táluks*, but it is not worked.

The forest land is of vast extent, but the exact area is unknown, as the District has never been surveyed. Most of the land is private property, and only a few forests near the Gháts are owned by Government. At present the large timber forests are almost entirely confined to scattered portions of the Gháts and the immediate neighbourhood. Great portion of the uncultivated tract reaches to within a few miles of the coast, and supports a secondary and fuel-producing growth,—broken up and terminated towards the seaboard by undulating pasture ground of somewhat poor description. The Forest Department has failed to realize much revenue, owing to unsettled claims of the *ráyats* to the greater portion of the forest. The principal products are—timber, bamboos, fuel, cardamoms, wild arrowroot (Curcuma angustifolia), gall-nuts, gamboge, catechu; fibrous barks (several kinds), cinnamon (both bark and oil); gums; resins (from several forest trees, principally from the genus Dipterocarpus); dyes (various, but mainly of a sombre colour). These products, together with honey and beeswax, are collected by the Malaikudis or hillmen; but the total export from the District is not important. There is a large yearly out-turn of sandal oil, amounting in value to over £15,000, but this is merely manufactured in Kánara, the sandal-wood being brought from Mysore for the purpose. Of timber trees, the best both in quality and quantity are the following:—*Matti* or *banapú* (Terminalia tomentosa), *kiral boghi* (Hopea parviflora), *irul* or *jambe* (Xylia dolabriformis), *marawa* or *honál* (Terminalia paniculata), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), wild jack (Artocarpus hirsuta), wild mango (Mangifera indica), poon spar (Calophyllum tomentosum), ebony (Diospyros Ebenum), iron-wood (Mesua ferrea), palmyra (Borassus flabelliformis), cedar (Cedrela Toon), bengay (Pterocarpus Marsupium),

ben teak (*Lagerstrœmia, more than one species*), and others of the genera Terminalia, Acacia, Dalbergia, and Dipterocarpus. The forests formerly abounded in game, which, however, is rapidly decreasing under incessant shooting without any close season. One effect of the great destruction of game is, that tigers and other beasts of prey are driven by the decreasing quantity of hog and deer to feed upon cattle. Elephants, tiger, leopard, *sámbhar*, the axis, and other small deer, and wild hog are to be found; but the Kánara jungles are the especial home of the bison. The people will not kill snakes, and, as a rule, no rewards are claimed for their destruction. The total number of deaths in 1882 from snake-bite and from wild beasts is returned at 27.

History.—The history of South Kánara is not easily traced. From an ethnological standpoint, the country has no independent existence. The southern portion is Malayálam, the middle Tuluva, and only the north in any sense Kánarese. The very name is a misnomer. Kánara or the *Kárnatadesa* (the country where the Kánarese people dwell and the Kánarese tongue is spoken) is properly the land above the Gháts, of which Mysore, Coorg, and part of the Ceded Districts form the most considerable tract. By one of the strange errors of history, the name strictly applicable to this region (KARNATIC) has been transferred to the Tamil country below the Eastern Gháts, while the name of Kánara is given to the Malabar-Tuluva country on the western coast. South Kánara, at least as far north as Udipi, formed part of the ancient kingdom of Kerála; and certainly, as far north as the Chendragiri river, the people and language belong to Malabár. Passing over the legendary period of Parasu Ráma, in 1252 A.D. a Pandyan prince is found conquering and ruling the country, and his successors giving place (1336) to the Vijayanagar Ráj. In 1564, when the power of the latter dynasty was broken at the battle of Tálikot, the governor of Bednúr (originally only a rich *ráyat*) threw off his allegiance and established the kingdom of Bednúr, to which in process of time Kánara from Honor to Nileshwár was added. In the earlier dealings of the Company's factors with the Cherakal Rájá, this kingdom is spoken of as 'our enemy Canara.' The northern part of Kánara, probably as far south as the confines of Tuluva, was ruled in early times by the Kadamba (A.D. 161 to 714) and Ballala (714–1335) dynasties. The Ikkeri Rájás of Tuluva (1560 to 1763), like the Bednúr Rájás, to whom latterly they became feudatory, rose to power on the ruins of Vijayanagar.

In 1763, when Haidar Alí conquered Bednúr, he despatched detachments to secure the western coast; and Mangalore and Basrúr were occupied within a few months of the fall of the capital. Immediate steps were taken to utilize the possession of the seaboard and to found a Mysorean navy; and in 1766, Haidar passed through the District to

the conquest of Malabár. Two years afterwards, an English force from Bombay captured Haidar's fleet, and occupied Honor and Mangalore, only to surrender them a few months later to Haidar's troops under Tipú. One of Tipú's first acts was the deportation and forcible conversion to Muhammadanism of a large portion of the Christian inhabitants of Kánara. In 1783-84, South Kánara was again the scene of war between the English and Mysore troops, which terminated, after a gallant defence of over nine months, in the evacuation of Mangalore. South Kánara finally became a British possession in 1791.

In 1834, on the occasion of the deposition of the Coorg Rájá, the inhabitants of Amara and Suliya petitioned for annexation. In 1837, the Government complied with their request, and the Maganis were added to the Puttúr Division of South Kánara. This, however, caused great dissatisfaction. One Kalianappa Subraya, taking advantage of the feeling of loyalty still retained towards the old Coorg dynasty, raised an insurrection in the same year. The imbecility of the commandant of the troops and the timidity of the Collector gave courage to what was at first a mere riot. The insurrection spread, and the troops retreated from Puttúr to Mangalore. The rebels followed and sacked the civil offices and jail in the face of the troops, but soon retired and broke up into small gangs of marauders. These were speedily dispersed, and the ringleaders seized and punished; and in a very short while the whole country was quieted. At no time was this insurrection formidable; the men were armed with clubs and a few matchlocks, and a determined front would have broken it at any time. The records were destroyed, however, and much property plundered. In 1860 the Province was divided into two Districts, North and South Kánara, of which the former was transferred to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

Population.—The population of the District has been enumerated from time to time. Before 1871, the returns were made up by the village officers as part of their ordinary duty. An elaborate and complete Census of the District, taken in 1871, disclosed a total population of 919,513 persons, of whom 787,183 were Hindus, 82,803 Muhammadans, 49,517 Christians, and 10 'others.' The population in 1881 was returned at 959,514, living in 3 towns and 1279 villages, occupying 171,432 houses; average density, 246 persons to the square mile. Males numbered 472,236, or 49·2 per cent. of the whole; females, 487,278. Towns and villages per square mile, ·328; houses per square mile, 44; persons per house, 5·6.

Distributed according to religion, Hindus numbered 797,430; Muhammadans, 93,652; Christians, 58,215; Jains, 10,044; Pársís, 16; and 'others,' 157. Among the Hindus were—Bráhmans, 106,415; Rájputs, 287; Balijas, 94,464; Valayans, 36,099; Goudas, 41,338; Kammálans, 22,513; Kushavans, 24,883; Parayans, 130,000; Idigas,

136,146; Vanniyans, 10,918; and other less numerous castes. The Muhammadans include 273 Mappilás, 7 Mughals, 350 Patháns, 49 Sayyids, 282 Shaikhs, and 92,691 'unspecified.'

Of the 1282 towns and villages in the District, 236 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 400 from two to five hundred; 370 from five hundred to one thousand; 198 from one to two thousand; 48 from two to three thousand; 24 from three to five thousand; 5 from five to ten thousand; and 1 over twenty thousand. The principal of these towns are Mangalore, Bantwál, and Udipi.

The male population is, for the purpose of exhibiting the occupations of the people, divided into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every description, and the learned professions, 11,946; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 5623; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 10,516; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 220,086; (5) industrial class, including manufacturers and artisans, 40,898; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 183,167.

The inhabitants of South Kánara are of four races — Hindus, half-caste Portuguese, Arabs, and aborigines. The Hindus may be divided into two classes—those undoubtedly of Aryan descent, such as the Saraswatí Bráhmans, and perhaps the Konkání Bráhmans; and those probably of the Dravidian stock, Sivali Bráhmans, Bants, Jains, and perhaps Koragars and Holiyars. Of the half-caste Portuguese, native Christians (originally immigrants from Goa) form a considerable part. The Mappilás, of Arab descent, profess the Muhammadan faith. The aborigines include Malaikudis, Koragars, and probably the Holiyars, the latter being Pariahs or out-castes. The Malaikudis are an aboriginal race inhabiting the forests, many of whom have either migrated to the coffee plantations or remain in a state of serfdom to the proprietors. They practise the nomadic system of agriculture, known as *kumári*. Of the so-called Bráhmans, a very large section are cultivating Bráhmans, arbitrarily elevated to that caste, and not acknowledged by the legitimate or Aryan Bráhmans. The Christians are not confined to the towns, but mingle with the other castes in every occupation. The Census of 1881 returns a total of 3320 Protestants. By far the larger part of the Christians are Roman Catholics, who are returned in the same Census at 54,660. Of the last number, over 13,000 are stated to be natives. Formerly, the Basel Moravian Mission (founded in 1838) was most active in the District, but the Jesuit Order has of late been very energetic in its operations. The chief languages spoken in South Kánara are—apart from the European tongues and the Hindustání of foreigners—Tulu, Malayálam, Kánarese, and Konkání. Tulu, the language of Tuluva, is spoken generally

between Udipi and Kumbla, by perhaps 180,000 people; south of the Puiswinni river, and elsewhere with Mappilás, Malayálam is the prevailing tongue. Kánarese, being the official language, is understood everywhere. Konkáni is the domestic language of some castes, and of all the Goa Christians.

MANGALORE is the most important town in the District, and the only municipality. It has a population of 32,099 persons, and an annual municipal revenue of about £3000.

Agriculture.—The staple crop of South Kánara is rice. Cocoa-nut gardens are numerous along the coast, and areca plantations in the interior. Gram, beans, hemp, *rágí*, sugar-cane, tobacco, and cotton are grown, but not to any extent. Of the total area in 1882-83 (2,808,587 acres), 33,635 acres were *inám* or revenue free. Area cultivated, 371,305 acres, of which 209,627 acres were cultivated again for a second crop. Cereals occupied 490,804 acres; pulses, 39,721; orchard and garden produce, 27,779; drugs and narcotics, 603; condiments and spices, 15,520; sugar, 1771; oils, 4568; and fibres, 166. The irrigated area was 232,250 acres, of which 163,396 acres were irrigated a second time for another crop. The total area assessed consisted of 411,192 acres, the amount of assessment being £160,370. The land is thus classified according to its capacity for irrigation—*byle*, or rich wet land; *mazal*, or middling wet land; and *bettu*, or land watered only by the rainfall. On *byle* land of the best quality, three rice crops can be raised in the year; on the best *mazal* land, two crops; *bettu* land produces only a single crop. The *yenulu* or *karti* is the earliest rice crop of the season, on whatever description of land it may be grown. The seed is first sown in nurseries, which are highly manured, and the plants are afterwards transplanted. In about two months after transplantation, the crop comes into ear, and in about twenty-one days more is ready for reaping. Experiments have been made to introduce Carolina rice, but have not been generally attended with success. The ruling prices of food-grains, etc., per *garce* of 9600 lbs. avoirdupois, in South Kánara in 1870-71 were —for best rice, £33, 14s.; paddy, £14, 10s.; gram, £62, 10s.; and wheat, £62, 10s. The current prices per *maund* of 82 lbs. of the chief articles of food during 1882-83 were—Rice, 4s. 10¾d.; *rágí*, 3s. 5½d.; wheat, 7s. 3d.; horse gram (Dolichos uniflorus), 3s. 7½d.; black gram or *múg* (Phaseolus mungo), 5s. 2¼d.; salt, 5s. 8½d.; sugar, £1, 8s. 4d.

The wages of day-labourers have not increased since 1850, but smiths and bricklayers, who in that year obtained 6d., now get 9d., and carpenters now receive 1s. who then got 9d. The Holiyars, answering to the Pariahs of Madras and the Mahars of Bombay, are a class who live by hire as unskilled labourers. They are paid in paddy or rice; and their wages are subject to deductions on account of

debts generally contracted by them to meet the expenses of marriage. For gathering the harvest and storing it they are not paid at so much per day, but receive one-eleventh of the crop; so also for preparing rice from paddy—they receive 6 lbs. of rice for preparing 84 lbs. At the time of transplanting and reaping, females are largely employed, and are generally paid 4 lbs. of rice per day. Before the British rule, the Holiyars were the slaves of the *wargdárs* (proprietors); and even to this day they remain in a state of modified serfdom. But the coffee estates are drawing large numbers from their homes, and the labour market is rapidly becoming ruled by the ordinary laws of supply and demand.

Almost all land is private property, some unclaimed waste, and lands escheated to Government being the only exception. The whole is divided into estates (*wargs*), which include cultivated, cultivable, and waste lands, but only the cultivated portion is assessed. Any new cultivation is assessed at certain fixed rates according to the description of soil. As long as the proprietor pays the assessment, Government does not interfere, and no cultivation accounts are kept, the assessment being fixed on the whole estate and not on each field. Some over-assessed lapsed estates are temporarily granted for cultivation below the standard assessment. Formerly *mul-pattás* (permanent leases) were given for such lands, but the practice has now been discontinued.

The tenures between the proprietor (*wargdár*) and the tenant (*wakkal*) are: (1) *múlgeni* or permanent leases at a fixed rent, generally granted on payment of a premium—in old leases the rent is usually paid in money, in recent leases in kind; (2) *chalgeni*, yearly or temporary leases—rent generally paid in kind, sometimes partly in money and partly in kind. The *múlgeni* tenure is transferable, and the holder may be regarded as a subordinate proprietor rather than a tenant. The *múlgeni* tenants are in the proportion of 1 to 6 to the *chalgeni* tenants. The Government assessment on *múlgeni* lands is sometimes paid by the proprietor and sometimes by the tenant. That on *chalgeni* lands is always paid by the proprietor. All the best rice land in the District is already under cultivation, but there is a considerable extent of waste within the limits of estates suitable for a single crop of rice. Favourable rates are given for bringing such land under cultivation. The Government assessment is paid to the *pátel* or village head-man in five instalments, and forwarded monthly to the treasury. The following are the average rates of rent per acre paid by the tenants to their landlords:—

	On *Múlgeni.*	*Chalgeni.*
Byle, or 3 crop land, . . .	Rs. 20 to Rs. 26	Rs 16 to Rs. 20
Mazal, or 2 crop land, . . .	Rs. 12 „ Rs. 16	Rs. 8 „ Rs. 11
Bettu, or 1 crop land, . . .	Rs. 8 „ Rs. 11	Rs. 4 „ Rs. 6
Cocoa-nut and areca-nut gardens,	Rs. 30 „ Rs. 40	

Out of this the proprietor pays the Government assessment. Rents have considerably increased of late years.

Communications.—In 1882-83, there were 357 miles of navigable rivers in the District; and of made roads, 1164 miles. No railway passes through the District. The principal lines of road are from Mangalore to the various *gháts* which lead into Mysore and Coorg. The coast road is not practicable for wheel traffic, but there is excellent sea communication by country craft and steamers.

Commerce, etc.—The chief articles of trade are coffee, rice, salt, coir, yarn, betel-nuts, oil, and seeds. The exports exceed the imports in value very considerably; but this is no evidence of the balance of trade being in favour of this District, as Mangalore and other Kánara ports are chiefly used to export the produce of the countries above the Gháts, while part of the imports find their way through to other Districts, *viâ* Bangalore. The annual tonnage of ships is returned at 291,145, and their number at 3833. The chief articles of import are piece-goods, cotton twist, yarn, oils, and salt. In 1875-76, the total imports were valued at £183,250, and the exports at £781,672. Of the exports, £400,000 represent coffee, and £175,000 rice; of the imports, the chief item is £110,000 for piece-goods and yarn. In 1881, the imports into Mangalore, the chief town and port of the District, were valued at £238,172, and the exports in the same year at £284,427.

The Basel Mission and the Jesuit Mission are the most notable institutions in the District. The Basel Mission has a large shop for the sale of European goods, a tile manufactory, a weaving shed, and a flourishing printing establishment, all which give employment to converts.

Revenue History.—In 1800, Major (afterwards Sir Thomas) Munro was appointed Collector of Kánara. The exactions of Haidar and Tipú, though resulting in a large nominal increase of revenue, which was never fully collected, had seriously impoverished the country. In order to place the revenue on a satisfactory footing, Major Munro struck off a portion of the Mysore augmentation, and took the original Bednúr assessment with part of the Mysore additions as a basis. His object was to fix a limit to the Government demand which would be within the means of the proprietors to pay. Some estates were then unable to pay even this limited demand, and a temporary abatement was made in such cases, to be withdrawn on cultivation improving. It was laid down as a general rule that the assessment on estates, even on the most productive, ought never to be raised higher than it had been at some former period. During the succeeding seventeen years the revenue did not improve, and collections were realized with increasing difficulty. It was considered that the Munro Settlement pressed heavily in some cases, and it was decided therefore to revise it. The Board

of Revenue were of opinion that the best universal standard would be the average collections from each estate during the preceding seventeen years; and the Harris Settlement, or 'Tarow,' fixed on these principles, has continued to the present day.

During the years immediately following the 'Tarow' Settlement, the collections did not in any year attain the standard then fixed; and owing to bad crops, low prices, and other causes, large annual remissions had to be granted. In 1831, the Collector, Mr. Viveash, permanently reduced the assessment on some over-assessed estates, and made arrangements to bring others up to the 'Tarow' by instalments. Since that time no change has been made, and the District has improved rapidly, the assessment being collected with ease and punctuality. The Viveash arrangement has never been formally sanctioned by the Board of Revenue, so that the permanent reductions ('Board *shifarras*') are liable to be cancelled, and the 'Tarow' Settlement reimposed on any general revision of the assessment on such estates. The amount of such reductions is, however, small (£1003). Lands newly taken up for cultivation are assessed with reference to their capability for producing rice, the staple crop of the District.

Administration.—In 1870–71, after North Kánara had been constituted a separate District, the revenue was £233,776, and the expenditure £67,729. The principal source of revenue is the land, which yielded £116,189 in 1871; salt yielded £53,277; excise on spirits and drugs, £13,784. In 1882–83 the land revenue was £135,804; excise, £14,847; assessed taxes, £1237; stamps, £19,728; miscellaneous, £2518; total gross revenue, £174,134. The District postal service cost £323. South Kánara is divided into the 5 *táluks* of Mangalore, Kassergod, Uppárangadi, Udipi, and Kundapur. The number of magisterial courts in 1882–83 was 22, and of civil and revenue judges, 13. The average distance from a village to the nearest court is 21 miles The total police force in 1882 numbered 707 men, being 1 to every 5½ square miles and to every 1357 of the population. The total cost of this force was £9954. The average pay of a foot constable is 16s, and of a mounted constable, 20s per month. There are four printing presses in the District. There were, in 1881, 207 Government and inspected schools, teaching 7828 pupils. Education until late years was more backward than in the eastern Districts, but great strides have been made since the local boards were introduced. Good schooling of a high class is obtainable at the Mangalore provincial school; and more recently the Jesuit Mission has started a college, and is raising a building capable of accommodating 500 boys. The college is managed almost entirely by European teachers.

Medical Aspects.—The District is generally healthy, but fever and bowel complaints are not uncommon. The rainfall averages ab

inches per annum; in 1882, the fall was 154·5 inches. The mean temperature on the seaboard is 84° F. The prevailing epidemic disease is fever. It is most common during the monsoon (June to October), and is probably due to the excessive damp and the malarial poison developed from decaying vegetation. The agricultural classes, owing to their close proximity to the jungles, are the chief sufferers. In the neighbourhood of the Gháts, jungle fever, enlarged spleens, and debilitated constitutions are more or less common. The only really epidemic disease is small-pox, though in 1876 a mild form of cholera, or more probably bowel complaint, caused many deaths. Small-pox is prevalent during the months of February and March. It is of a severe type, and attacks the poorer classes. The medicines prescribed by the native practitioners are chiefly decoctions, and ointments prepared from herbs, roots, drugs, and spices. They invariably prescribe three things at the same time:—(1) A decoction or a charm to be taken internally, (2) an ointment to be applied externally, and (3) a *kanji* or rice-water, with several medicines mixed in it to be taken as a diet. The best-known indigenous medicines of this District are—Cannabis indica, Catechu Ingram, Chireta, Datura alba, galls, and sarsaparilla. In 1882–83, 25,522 births were registered, or 27·8 per 1000 of the population; and 15,837 deaths, or 17·2 per 1000 of the population. Vaccination is spreading in the District. [For further information regarding South Kánara, see the *Madras Census Report* for 1881, and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Presidency from 1880 to 1883.]

Kanárak (*Black Pagoda*).—Ruined temple in Purí District, Orissa; situated on the sea-shore of the Bay of Bengal, 19 miles north-west of Purí town. Lat. 19° 53′ 25″ N., long. 86° 8′ 16″ E. This temple forms one of the most exquisite memorials of sun-worship in India—one of the religions of the Vishnuvite type into which Buddhism disintegrated, and which afterwards gave place to another form of Vishnuvism, represented by Jagannáth. According to the Orissa records, it was built between 1237 and 1282 A.D. It is now a picturesque ruin, looking down upon the sea. No traces of the outer wall remain, the Maráthá officers having carried away the stones as building materials to Purí; and of the temple itself, which in a complete state would have consisted of four chambers, only a single one, the Hall of Audience, survives. Its great doorway, facing the east, is blocked up by masses of stone and festooned by creepers. In front rises a huge mound of jungle-covered rubbish, the remains of the outer hall of offerings. Sculptures in high relief, but of an indecent character, cover the exterior walls, and bear witness to an age when Hindu artists worked from nature. The nymphs are beautifully-shaped women; the elephants move along at the true elephant trot, and kneel down in the stone exactly as they did

in life. Clubmen, griffins, warriors on prancing horses, colossal figures of grotesque and varied shape, stand about in silent groups. Each of the four doorways, on the north, south, east, and west, has two lintels of chlorite,—a bluish, slate-like stone, very hard, and exquisitely polished. On these lintels rest massive beams of iron, supporting the wall above. The eastern entrance was, till some years ago, surmounted, as in other Orissa temples, by a chlorite slab, on which the emblems of the seven days of the week, with the ascending and descending nodes, are carved. The beauty of this elaborate piece proved a more fatal enemy than time, and tempted English antiquaries to try to remove it by sea to the Museum at Calcutta. A grant of public money was obtained; but it sufficed only to drag the massive block a couple of hundred yards, where it now lies, quite apart from the temple, and as far as ever from the shore. This block has now been disfigured by red paint applied to convert the relic into a *swámi* or god, and as such it is now sanctified and worshipped. A pyramid-shaped roof rises by terraces of exquisitely-carved granite, divided into three tiers, to a lotus-crowned pinnacle; the whole covered with sculptures of elephants, horses, cavalry, and foot-soldiers in endless processions. Innumerable busts of nymphs stand out from the mass of carving; images of the four-headed Brahma look towards the sea. If this ungrudging labour was lavished on merely the outer hall of offerings, one may judge of the magnificence of the towered sanctuary, whose ruins now constitute the jungle-covered hill behind. This inner edifice seems to have been never completed, as the foundation of the internal pillars, on which the heavy dome rested, gave way before the outer halls were finished. Its completed size may be inferred from the proportions of other temples belonging to the same order; and a restored elevation of it will be found in Mr. James Fergusson's *History of Indian and Eastern Architecture*, p. 422, ed. 1876. The enormous pyramidal roof of the still existing outer chamber rests on walls 60 feet high, and rises a further 64 feet above them. It forms a landmark along the coast, which ships still sight on their passage up the Bay of Bengal; and inaccuracy in the bearings or neglect to use the lead constantly wrecked vessels on the shore. The villagers explained such mishaps by a story of a huge lodestone (*Kumbhar-pathar*) on the summit of the tower, which, like Sinbad the sailor's rock, drew the unhappy ships on the sands; and they relate how a Musalmán crew at length scaled the temple and carried off the fatal magnet. The priests, they say, forthwith abandoned the desecrated shrine, and migrated with their god to Purí.

Kanauj.—Eastern *tahsil* of Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the south bank of the Ganges. Area, 209 square miles, of which 135 are cultivated. Population (1872) 117,141; (1881) 114,912, namely, males 61,970, and females 52,942. Classified accord-

ing to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 97,744; Muhammadans, 16,702; and Jains, 466. Land revenue, £20,637; total Government revenue, £23,738; rental paid by cultivators, £35,158. The *tahsil* may be broadly divided into two tracts,—the uplands (*bángar*), above the old cliff of the Ganges, and the lowlands (*kachoha*), about 30 feet below it. The uplands occupy the bulk of the *tahsíl;* and these are again cleft into two natural divisions by the Kálí Nadi, which winds across them parallel to the Ganges cliff, and descends through that cliff into the lowlands. The lowland tract, which formed many centuries ago the bed of the Ganges, is still more or less subject to inundation by that river. The principal crops, and the approximate area occupied by them, are—for the autumn harvest, *bájra*, 18,750 acres; *joár*, 15,000 acres; indigo, 9250 acres; cotton, 7250 acres; *arhar*, 3250 acres; and *moth*, 1250 acres:—for the spring harvest, barley, 50,000 acres; wheat, 28,750 acres; poppy, 5250 acres; gram, 2500 acres; and barley mixed with wheat, 1750 acres. Sugar-cane occupies about 4250 acres all the year round. The *tahsíl* is well provided with roads for the transport of its produce, and weekly markets are held at all its principal villages. The Grand Trunk Road passes north-westwards through the *tahsíl*, and several unmetalled roads connect the towns and villages. The Cawnpur and Farukhábád Railway, when completed, will cross the *tahsíl* parallel to the Grand Trunk Road, with stations at Mirán-ki-Sarái, Fatehpur, and Jalálábád. Additional means of communication are also afforded by the Ganges, and in the rains by the Kálí Nadi. The principal landed proprietors are Bághel Rájputs, Bráhmans, and Káyasths. The *tahsíl* contains one civil and one criminal court, and two police circles (*thánás*), with their head-quarters at Mirán-ki-Sarái and Jalálábád; strength of regular police force, 39 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 322.

Kanauj.—Ancient city in Farukhábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the west bank of the Kálí Nadi, 5 miles above its junction with the Ganges and 32 miles south of Fatehgarh, in lat. 27° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 58′ E. The sacred river, which once flowed close beneath the city, has now receded some four miles north-eastward.

Kanauj in early times formed the capital of a great Aryan kingdom, and the Gupta dynasty extended their sway over a large portion of Upper India. The prosperity of the city dates from a pre-historic period, and seems to have culminated about the 6th century after Christ. In 1018 it fell before Mahmúd of Ghazní, and again, in 1194, before Muhammad Ghori. In 1540, Humáyún here received his crushing defeat at the hands of Sher Sháh, which compelled him for the time to fly from India and renounce the empire of Bábar. The existing ruins extend over the lands of five villages, and occupy a semicircle fully four miles in diameter. Their material consisted chiefly

of brick, so that only the foundations of the principal buildings now remain; and as the bricks are constantly employed for fresh edifices, the traces of the ancient city grow scantier every day. The present town covers the ravines and mounds of the cliff which once bordered on the Ganges bed. Among the relics of antiquity, the shrine of Rájá Ajaipál ranks first in interest, having been erected, in all probability, by the Jaipál conquered by Mahmúd of Ghazní, and killed in 1021 by the Chandel Rájá of Kálinjar. The *Jamá Masjid*, or Cathedral Mosque, also dates back to Hindu times, its pillars exhibiting traces of early carving, with florid details of sculpture, too idolatrous for the handicraft of Musalmán workmen. It still bears the name of Sítá's Kitchen (*Sítá-ki-rasoi*), and is said to have been converted to its present use by Ibráhím Sháh of Jaunpur about 1400. North-west of the town stand the later Muhammadan tombs of Bálá Pír and his son, Shaikh Mehndi, dating from about 1650. Other Musalmán mausoleums cover surrounding fields. The present inhabitants live for the most part in huts built up against the ancient walls. Kanauj formed one of the great traditional centres of Aryan civilisation. Hinduism in Lower Bengal dates its legendary origin from a Bráhman migration southwards from this city, circ. 800 or 900 A.D. To this day all Bráhmans in the Lower Provinces trace their descent to one or other of the five Bráhmans from Kanauj.

The modern town stands on the mounds and slopes carved by ravines. The streets are in most cases, therefore, steep; while the different quarters or wards are marked off by narrow gullies or lanes. Although chiefly brick-built, the town has a shabby appearance, many of the modern houses being built on the ruined sites of the old city, the brickwork foundations of which extend to a great depth. The busiest portion of the town is the Bará Bázár, or High Street, a long, widish, winding road paved with brick. It is entered at its eastern end through an old gateway, which once formed the west portal of a *sarái* built in the reign of Sháh Jahán, but of which a few chambers only remain. Another important business centre is a wide and shady grain market, known as the Turáb Alí Bázár. The population of the town, which in 1871 was 17,093, had slightly decreased by 1881 to 16,646, males numbering 8302, and females 8344. Classified according to religion, there were, in 1881—Hindus, 10,057; Muhammadans, 6123; and Jains, 466. Markets are held four days in the week, for the ordinary sales of grain, vegetables, and cloth. The manufactures of Kanauj comprise the weaving of various descriptions of cloth, the distillation of rose-water, paper-making, lac bracelets, confectionery, etc. For police and conservancy purposes, a house-tax is levied under the provisions of the *Chaukídárí* Act.

Kan-aung (*Kanoung*).—Township with 4 revenue circles, in Henzada

District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. It extends westwards from the Irawadi to the Arakan Yomas. The tract near the river is low, but now protected from inundations by extensive embankments; towards the hills the country is mountainous, clothed with valuable forests, containing teak, *tauk-kyan*, *pyin-gado*, and *in* (*eng*). In the low lands between the Irawadi and the hills are several lakes, the chief being the Tu, fed during the rains by the Mamya, a mountain stream. The principal town is KAN-AUNG. Population (1876) 36,336; (1881) 27,857; number of villages, 140; land revenue, £2863; revenue from capitation-tax, £2504; from fisheries, £1160; from net-tax, £5; from local cesses, £418. Area under cultivation (1881-82), 16,291 acres, of which 13,886 were under rice, 488 under sesamum, and 63 under tobacco. The agricultural stock in 1881 comprised 3803 buffaloes, 9215 cows, bulls, and bullocks, 485 pigs, 2446 carts, and 1573 ploughs; sledges, 1212; boats, 129.

Kan-aung.—Town in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Irawadi. Lat. 18° 11′ 50″ N., long. 95° 29′ E. Population (1881) 3218, chiefly merchants and petty traders; number of houses, 655; revenue, £232. Kan-aung was founded in 1754 A.D. by King Alompra; the name is Talaing, and means 'whirlpool.' The place is so called because at the time the name was given there was a whirlpool opposite the spot on which the town was built. In the neighbourhood are the remains of an old fort. The town contains a police station, Public Works Department inspection bungalow, and several public rest-houses. The extra-Assistant Commissioner resides and holds his court at Kan-aung.

Kánchanjangá (*Kinchinjunga*).—An immense mountain peak in the Eastern Himálayas, on the boundary between Sikkim and Nepál. Lat. 27° 42′ 5″ N., long. 88° 11′ 26″ E. The second loftiest measured mountain in the world; elevation, 28,176 feet. This peak is 130 miles east of Gosainthan, and forms the extreme eastern horn of the Nepál Himálayas.

Kánchanjhau.—A lofty spur of the Himálayas, forming the northern boundary line of Sikkim.

Káncharapára.—Village and station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, on the northern boundary of the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; 28 miles from Calcutta.

Kanchiang.—River in the Khási Hills, Assam, which flows south into Sylhet District, and ultimately joins the main stream of the Surmá or Barák under the name of the Jádukátá.

Kánchívaram (*Kánchipúr*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CONJEVERAM.

Kandahár.—Province in Afghánistán. The Province of Kandahár extends on the Kábul side to Pul-i-Sang, about 10 miles south of

Khelát-i-Ghilzai; on the west to the Helmand; on the south to the frontier of Baluchistán; and on the north to the Hazára country. Kandahár became a separate government twenty years ago (about 1860). The chief rivers in the Province are the Helmand, the Tarnak, the Argandáb, the Dorí, the Arghastán, and Kadanái. The principal mountain range is the Sháh Maksúd, which divides the Khakrez valley from that of Ghorak. The highest point of the range is 8840 feet. Other ranges in the Province are the Gul Koh, forming the right-hand boundary of the Tarnak valley, the Khakrez range, dividing the Khakrez valley from the valley of the Argandáb, and the Gánte mountains, on the left bank of the Arghastán river. The Duráni tribe forms the largest part of the population. Farziwans (Persians) and Ghilzais are also found in considerable numbers. The most important towns in the Province are Kandahár, Farah, Khelát-i-Ghilzai, and Máruf. An approximate estimate by one of Sher Alí Khán's ministers gives the following details of population:—Men, 400,000; women, 600,000; children, 600,000, total, 1,600,000. The same authority estimates the revenue of the Province at about Rs. 3,700,000, or £370,000.

Kandahár (*Candahar*).—Chief city of the Province of Kandahár, Afghánistán; situated in lat. 31° 37′ N., and long. 65° 30′ E., between the Argandáb and Tarnak rivers, 89 miles south-west of Khelát-i-Ghilzai, 233 miles south-west of Ghazni, 318 south-west of Kábul, and 380 south-east of Herát.

The modern city of Kandahár is situated in a plain on the left bank of the Argandáb, but separated from that river by a range of mountains. A break in the continuity of the latter affords easy communication between the plain of Kandahár and the valley of the Argandáb. Kandahár was built at the base of the Chehlzínak rock, four miles of the modern city, enclosing with three main fronts a considera portion of plain, whilst the fourth front was formed by the mo This rock, from its singular form and precipitous sides, was cons inaccessible and a more secure barrier than the artificial works at base. Nádir Sháh, who, after a long siege, captured old Kand showed the weakness of the site; and this probably led to a city b built two miles south-east, in the plains and clear of all hills, Nádirábád, which in its turn was destroyed by Ahmad Sháh Abdá who in 1747 founded the present city. The remains of old Kandah are on a much larger scale and have a more formidable appearance than any of the later military strongholds of Afghánistán. The following account of the city is condensed from General Sir Charles Macgregor's *Gazetteer*; but no responsibility rests with the Government of India for any facts or opinions here offered

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Kanchiang.—River in the Khási Hills, Assam, which flows south into Sylhet District, and ultimately joins the main stream of the Surmá or Barák under the name of the Jádukátá.

Kánchívaram (*Kánchipúr*).—Town in Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CONJEVERAM.

Kandahár.—Province in Afghánistán. The Province of Kandahár extends on the Kábul side to Pul-i-Sang, about 10 miles south of

Khelát-i-Ghilzai; on the west to the Helmand; on the south to the frontier of Baluchistán; and on the north to the Hazára country. Kandahár became a separate government twenty years ago (about 1860). The chief rivers in the Province are the Helmand, the Tarnak, the Argandáb, the Dorí, the Arghastán, and Kadanái. The principal mountain range is the Sháh Maksúd, which divides the Khakrez valley from that of Ghorak. The highest point of the range is 8840 feet. Other ranges in the Province are the Gul Koh, forming the right-hand boundary of the Tarnak valley, the Khakrez range, dividing the Khakrez valley from the valley of the Argandáb, and the Gánte mountains, on the left bank of the Arghastán river. The Durání tribe forms the largest part of the population. Farziwans (Persians) and Ghilzais are also found in considerable numbers. The most important towns in the Province are Kandahár, Farah, Khelát-i-Ghilzai, and Máríf. An approximate estimate by one of Sher Alí Khán's ministers gives the following details of population:—Men, 400,000; women, 600,000; children, 600,000; total, 1,600,000. The same authority estimates the revenue of the Province at about Rs. 3,700,000, or £370,000.

Kandahár (*Candahar*).—Chief city of the Province of Kandahár, Afghánistán; situated in lat. 31° 37′ N., and long. 65° 30′ E., between the Argandáb and Tarnak rivers, 89 miles south-west of Khelát-i-Ghilzai, 233 miles south-west of Ghazní, 318 south-west of Kábul, and 380 south-east of Herát.

The modern city of Kandahár is situated in a plain on the left bank of the Argandáb, but separated from that river by a range of mountains. A break in the continuity of the latter affords easy communication between the plain of Kandahár and the valley of the Argandáb. Old Kandahár was built at the base of the Chehlzínak rock, four miles west of the modern city, enclosing with three main fronts a considerable portion of plain, whilst the fourth front was formed by the mountain. This rock, from its singular form and precipitous sides, was considered inaccessible and a more secure barrier than the artificial works at its base. Nádir Sháh, who, after a long siege, captured old Kandahár, showed the weakness of the site; and this probably led to a city being built two miles south-east, in the plains and clear of all hills, named Nádirábád, which in its turn was destroyed by Ahmad Sháh Abdálí, who in 1747 founded the present city. The remains of old Kandahár are on a much larger scale and have a more formidable appearance than any of the later military strongholds of Afghánistán. The following account of the city is condensed from General Sir Charles Macgregor's *Gazetteer;* but no responsibility rests with the Government of India for any facts or opinions here offered.

The population of the city of Kandahár has been very variously

with flat-arched domes, made of sun-burnt bricks, with a hole at the top in the centre to admit the light. These houses are to be seen chiefly in the suburbs outside the city, in ranges, containing several together; they have on one side doors, but no windows or regular fire-places. The citadel is situated at the north of the city. South of it is an open space called the Topkhána, which affords a place of arms; west of it is an open face, in which is situated the tomb of Ahmád Sháh Duráni, an octagonal structure overlaid outside with coloured porcelain bricks, and surmounted by a gilded dome surrounded by small minarets. It overtops all the surrounding buildings, and its dome attracts the attention of the traveller approaching the city. The pavement within is covered with a carpet, and a shawl is thrown over the sarcophagus of the monarch. The sepulchre itself is composed of a fine stone found in the mountains near Kandahár, inlaid with wreaths of flowers of coloured marble. Twelve lesser tombs, of the children of the Abdálí, are ranged near. The interior walls are painted in devices, similar to those which adorn the exterior, but the execution is more regular, and the colours, having been less exposed, are fresher and more brilliant. The lofty dome above the centre imparts an air of grandeur to the little building, and its window of trellis-work in stone admit a solemn and pleasing light.

The trade between Kandahár and Herát and Mashad is carried on principally by Persians, who bring down silk (raw and manufactured), copper utensils, guns, daggers, swords, precious stones (turquoise), brocade, gold and silver braiding, ducats, horses, kurks, carpets, etc., and take back wool, felts, postins, and skins of the fox, wolf, etc. Till 1830 the trade was considerable, and also during the British occupation; but after the return of Kohan Dil Khán in 1843, his tyranny drove away the principal merchants. The principal manufactures of Kandahár are silks, felts for coats, and rosaries of a soft crystallized silicate of magnesia, found near the city. The vine is very extensively cultivated in the suburban gardens of Kandahár, which produce no less than 19 different kinds of grapes. The *bázárs* are well supplied with good and cheap provisions, and excellent fruit is abundant,—apricots, pomegranates, quinces, figs, plums, peaches, cherries, apples, mulberries, etc. Dried fruit forms the great staple of the place.

History.—From the remotest times, Kandahár must have been a town of much importance in Asia, as its geographical position sufficiently indicates, it being the central point at which the roads from Herát, Seistán, Ghor, India, and Kábul unite, and the commercial mart of these localities. Kandahár is supposed to have been one of the seven cities built in the interior of Asia by Alexander the Great, on the ground that Kándar or Kandahár is an abbreviation of the name

Iskandar (Sikandar or Alexander). From the hands of Alexander, Kandahár is supposed to have passed into the power of the Seleukides, whose history is involved in obscurity. It is scarcely possible to determine what its condition was under the dominion of the Parthians and Sassanides, for the history of Kandahár at that time is enveloped in darkness, which lasted nearly to the period when the successors of Muhammad invaded Persia; but it appears certain that the Arabs penetrated into it in the first age of the Híjira. In A.D. 865, Yákub-ben Leis, founder of the dynasty of the Soffarides, possessed himself of Kandahár; the Sassanides drove out his successors, and it was taken from them by the famous Mahmúd Ghaznaví, whose dynasty was overthrown by that of the Ghorides. Under these last, Kandahár fell by turns into the hands of petty ambitious chiefs, who all succumbed to the 'Seljukides.' These possessed it till Sanjar, a prince of that dynasty, was overthrown by the Túrkománs, who were established in the town in 1153. A few years after, it fell under the power of Ghiás-ud-dín Muhammad, a Ghoride prince. Alá-ud-dín Muhammad, Sultán of Khaurism, took it in 1210; and his son was dispossessed by the famous Jahángír Khán in 1222. The descendants of that conqueror allowed it to be wrenched from them by the prince of the dynasty of Malek-kurt, who were succeeded by local chieftains till the period at which Timúrlane invaded and took possession of it (1389); at his death it became part of the dominions of his son, Sháh-Rokh. The Timurides retained it till 1468, at which epoch the death of the Sultán Abú Sayyid caused the dismemberment of the Empire. After this time, Kandahár and some surrounding Districts formed an independent State. In 1512 it was in the power of a chief called Sháh Beg, who was dispossessed by the famous Bábar, founder of the dynasty of the Mughals in India, to whose dominions it was annexed. Not long afterwards, Kandahár was taken by the Persians; and, after falling into the hands of the Mughals (from whom the Persians regained it in 1620), it was seized by the Uzbeks, who were not driven out till 1634. It again changed hands from time to time, and during the last 150 years has figured conspicuously in history. In 1737, Nadír Sháh, with an army of 100,000 men, blockaded the place for 18 months. It was then stormed, and after a gallant resistance the commandant surrendered. In 1834, Sháh Shujá marched against Kandahár with 22,000 men, but was compelled, after a desperate series of struggles lasting 54 days, to retire. This was the last unaided attempt of the Sadozais to re-take Kandahár; the next time Sháh-Shujá appeared on the field, it was with the support of the British Government.

The army of the Indus took possession of Kandahár on the 20th April 1839, without any resistance; and Sháh Shujá was crowned in the mosque of Ahmad Sháh on the 8th May. On the march of the

army to Ghazní and Kábul, to restore Sháh Shujá to the throne of Afghánistán, a force of three batteries of artillery, and two regiments of infantry and a regiment of cavalry was left behind. This was afterwards increased, and General Nott arrived to take command in November 1839. Throughout 1840 and most of 1841, affairs remained quiet at Kandahár, thanks to the good management of Rawlinson and Nott. But in September of the latter year, the first signs of the coming storm were visible in the stoppage of communication between Kandahár and Ghazní. No attempt, however, was made to lay siege to Kandahár by the rebel Duránís. An army of them under Safdar Jang, Sadozai, hovered about in the vicinity, plundering the villages, and by every possible means urging the inhabitants to join in an attack on the British troops. In the beginning of March 1842, he commenced to approach closer to the city itself; and General Nott moved out to meet him, leaving 2600 men in the city. He signally defeated Safdar Jang; but in his absence an attempt was made to carry the place by a night assault. During the forenoon of the 10th March 1842, bodies of the enemy, horse and foot, were observed assembling from all quarters, taking up a position near old Kandahár and the adjoining villages; and in the course of the day their number rapidly increased, parties from the main body moving round and establishing themselves in front of the Shikárpur gate. As their object was evidently to attack the garrison, the Political Agent directed the inhabitants to shut their shops and remain within their houses, and precautions were taken to secure the gates by piling bags of grain inside. About 8 o'clock P.M., a desperate attack was made upon the Herát gate, and, owing to the darkness of the night, some combustibles were placed near it and ignited unperceived, and in a few minutes the gate was in flames. A party of 100 rank and file from the 2nd Regiment, and a company from the Sháh's 1st Infantry, were immediately ordered to support the guard at the gate, and two guns were also placed in position commanding the entrance. Dense masses of the enemy now collected at this point, keeping up an incessant and heavy fire, which was returned with great effect from the ramparts; but so reckless and daring were the assailants, that notwithstanding the fearful havoc among them, eight or ten men actually forced their way by tearing down the burning fragments of the gate, and scrambling over the bags of grain. These were instantly shot, and their fate, together with the galling fire from the walls, dismayed the attacking party, who retired about midnight after four hours' resolute fighting. Another attack took place at the Shikárpur gate about 9 P.M., and a similar attempt was made to fire it, which, however, failed, and the assailants were driven back. A small party also approached the Kábul gate, but the garrison being everywhere on the

alert, the enemy were compelled to retire about 1 A.M. of the 11th, and when the day broke not a soul was visible. After this, a force was moved under Colonel Wymer to the relief of the brave garrison of Khelát-i-Ghilzai, on which, thinking that the diminution thus caused gave them another opportunity of attacking Ḳandahár, the Durání rebels, 6000 strong, under Safdar Jang and Akbar Khán, moved down close to Kandahár, and took possession of some steep, rocky hills within a mile of the city walls. Their position was good, and some of their points strong, but they had no reserve, and were somewhat scattered. General Nott sent the 42nd and 43rd Regiments Native Infantry with 4 guns, under Colonel Stacey, to reconnoitre, followed by Her Majesty's 41st, with artillery. At one o'clock the force was in action. The Duránís crowned the rocks above the city, and on them our force marched, the light companies as a storming party, supported by the 43rd and the artillery, who kept up a continual fire. From the position of the enemy, and the character of the ground, some loss followed,—about 30 killed and wounded, including 7 or 8 Europeans. After this, the hills on the opposite side were covered by large masses of the Duránís, who, however, soon gave way, and in great disorder all fled, striving to gain the Bábá Wáli Pass. A horrible scene ensued here. Thinking to entrap the British troops, the Gházís had barricaded the pass, and the Duránís, horse and foot, unable to make way, rushed round the base of the hills. Chase was given by Lieutenant Chamberlain with the cavalry and artillery. The Duránís were driven completely from their position, and fled to their camp beyond the Argandáb. No other attempt was made against Kandahár during General Nott's time; and on the 8th August 1843, he evacuated the city on his march to Kábul, taking with him Timúr Mirza, who had been appointed by his father, Sháh Shujá, Governor of Kandahár, and whom he had in vain endeavoured to induce to remain.

Safdar Jang then took possession, but in four months he was driven out by Kohan Díl Khán, who returned from Persia. This chief commenced a reign of gross tyranny, which reduced the inhabitants of Kandahár to the last ebb of despair—from which they were only relieved by his death in 1855. His son, Muhammad Sadík, then coming to Kandahár, seized the property and valuables of his deceased father, which proceeding giving great offence to his uncle Rahim Díl Khán, that chief invited the interference of Dost Muhammad, who accordingly arrived and took possession of the city in November 1855, apparently without opposition, and appointed [illegible] Haidar Khán, governor. This chief was still goverr[illegible] mission arrived in 1857, but he died soon after its [illegible] Kl[illegible] appears to have succeeded [illegible] Hai[illegible] Kandahár, and on his b[illegible]

Amín Khán, was appointed in his stead. This chief, however, joined the rebellion against Sher Alí, and was killed in the battle of Kajbaz on the 6th June 1865, where he had advanced to meet him. His brother, Muhammad Sharíf, fled to Kandahár, and after a vain attempt to raise partisans, surrendered to the Amír Sher Alí Khán, who consequently, on the 14th June 1865, took possession of Kandahár. Upon the defeat of Sher Alí Khán at Khelát-i-Ghilzai on the 17th of January 1867, Kandahár passed from his grasp to that of Azím Khán, his half-brother and rival. But after the battle on the Helmand on the 1st April 1868, Kandahár again fell into the power of Sher Alí through his son, Yákub Khán.

On the outbreak of hostilities between England and Afghánistán in November 1878, a column advanced upon Kandahár from Quetta under General Sir Donald Stewart. A body of the enemy was encountered and completely routed at Saif-ud-dín in the Takht-i-Pul district, and Kandahár was occupied on the 8th January 1879 without further opposition.

After the death of the Amir Sher Alí and the arrival of his successor Yákub Khán in the British camp at Gandamak had brought the war to an end, the British troops were withdrawn from most of the stations beyond the boundary which was fixed by the Gandamak treaty of May 1879; but for sanitary reasons the evacuation of Kandahár was postponed until the autumn. The Kandahár force had only begun to move, in accordance with this agreement, to the Pishin district, when it was ordered back on receipt of the news of the massacre of Sir Louis Cavagnari and his escort at Kábul on the 3rd September 1879. Kandahár was then re-occupied, and demonstrations were made from it towards Ghazní and Khelát-i-Ghilzai, the latter place being occupied, and a garrison left in it in the following month.

Later, when in March 1880 Sir D. Stewart marched from Kandahár to return to India by way of Ghazní and Kábul with the troops under his command which had been originally drawn from Bengal, fresh troops were moved up from Bombay to replace the Bengal division; and Major-General Primrose, who arrived on the 11th of April, took command.

Sardár Sher Alí Khán, Governor of Kandahár, was formally installed as Wáli of the Province on the 11th of May. Shortly after this, news was received that Sardár Muhammad Ayúb Khán was about to advance on Kandahár, whereupon the Wáli marched in June with his own troops towards the Helmand to keep the country quiet, and early in July a brigade of British troops under Brigadier-General Burrows was sent in support to the left bank of the river. The Wáli's infantry and artillery mutinied on the 15th July, and moved off towards Zámindáwar. After the mutineers had been pursued and their guns had been taken

from them, General Burrows retired upon Khúshk-i-Nakhud, a point about midway between Kandahár and Girishk, where he awaited Ayúb Khán's approach. Ayúb's advance guard reached Maiwand, 10 miles north-east of the British camp, on the 26th July, and the following day General Burrows marched to attack him. The battle which followed ended in a disastrous defeat for the British troops, who were very greatly outnumbered. General Burrows' brigade was dispersed, losing heavily, and the road to Kandahár lay open to Ayúb Khán.

The survivors of this engagement having reached Kandahár, General Primrose withdrew from the cantonments, and concentrated his force in the citadel and town, where he awaited Ayúb's attack. From the 8th of August the place was closely invested.

Abdur Rahman Khán had in the meanwhile come to terms with the British Government, and had in July been recognised as Amír of Kábul. Orders had also been issued for the withdrawal of the army of occupation from northern Afghánistán. When the news of the Maiwand disaster was received, the Government did not consider that this event necessitated a reversal of the policy of evacuation. But a selected force was taken from the troops at Kábul and despatched under the command of Sir Frederick Roberts for the relief of Kandahár. This force, amounting to 274 officers, 2562 British and 7151 Native troops, with 18 guns, left Kábul on the 8th August, and reached Kandahár on the 31st, having traversed 320 miles in 22 days. Sir Frederick Roberts at once assumed the command of the whole of the troops at Kandahár, and after a reconnaissance, he determined to attack the enemy on the following morning.

Sardár Muhammad Ayúb Khán's position extended from the Bábá Wáli Kotal, or pass, on the left, along and behind the Bábá Wáli ridge, to the village of Mula Sahibdad and Gundigan on the right. These villages and others in the plain are imbedded in walled gardens and orchards, intersected by numerous canals and watercuts. Neither of the villages, however, was occupied by the enemy on the afternoon of the 31st August, although Pir Paimal, behind the ridge, was held in force. The Afghán camps were in rear of the Bábá Wáli Kotal, between it and the river; Ayúb's head-quarters being near the village of Mazra, about a mile and a half north of the Kotal. The Kotal itself was strongly held, and several rifled guns placed in position to sweep the open ground in front. It was evident that the enemy expected the main attack to be made at this point. General Roberts, however, was satisfied that any attempt to carry the Bábá Wáli Kotal by a direct attack would be attended with a heavy loss. He determined, therefore, merely to threaten the Kotal, and to attack in force by the village of Pir Paimal and the enemy's right.

From a very early hour next morning it was clear that the enemy

contemplated an offensive movement. The village of Gundigan and that known as Gandi Mula Sahibdad, both in advance of the enemy's original position, as ascertained by the reconnaissance of the previous afternoon, were now held in strength, and the enemy opened a desultory fire from the mass of orchards lying around and between them before the troops began to advance. The guns of the Bábá Wáli Kotal also commenced an ill-directed shell fire, which was continued for hours, but with little effect.

At 9.30 A.M. fire was opened by the British on the Bábá Wáli position and on the village of Gandi Mula Sahibdad from either side of the Kurez Hill. Shortly afterwards the infantry were ordered to advance. The 1st brigade under Brigadier-General Macpherson was directed against Gandi Mula Sahibdad. The 2nd brigade, on the left of the 1st, was ordered to advance in a westerly direction, keeping touch on the right with the 1st brigade, and clearing the network of gardens and orchards in its immediate front. These two brigades were commanded by Major-General Ross.

Gandi Mula Sahibdad, the immediate objective, was stoutly defended; but the Highlanders and Gúrkhas vied with each other in their eagerness to close with the enemy. The village was carried, although a number of the enemy fought to the last, and were killed or driven out at the point of the bayonet. The remainder retreated slowly, keeping up a heavy and deliberate fire. Pir Paimal itself was carried soon after mid-day, and the complete rout of the enemy was effected by driving the last of them from the entrenched position on the south-west of the Bábá Wáli Kotal, where their final stand was made.

The enemy's losses were computed at 1200 killed, besides many wounded. Upwards of 600 bodies were afterwards buried between Kandahár and Pir Paímal alone. Ayúb Khán lost the whole of his camp, baggage, and artillery. The latter amounted to 34 pieces. The total casualties on the British side amounted to 40 killed and 228 wounded, also 16 horses and 7 mules killed, and 17 horses and 5 mules wounded. Twelve of the wounded died of their injuries within a few days of the action.

General Roberts' victory had the immediate effect of quieting the country. General Phayre, who had been advancing from Quetta under great difficulties of supply and transport, reached Abdur Rahman, two marches from Kandahár, on the 5th September. The troops which had arrived from Kábul were now ordered to India, and General Roberts made over command of the force in South Afghánistán to General Phayre on the 15th October, and left the country. It was not, however, until the end of April 1881 that all the troops in Kandahár had been brought back within the limits of the Quetta [illegible]

Amír Abdur Rahman Khán sent Sardár Muhammad Hashim Khán, a lad of 19 years, to assume the Governorship of Kandahár on its evacuation by the British. Sardár Shamsud-din-Khán was sent as adviser to the young Sardár.

Meanwhile Ayúb Khán, after his defeat by Sir F. Roberts on 1st September 1880, had maintained himself in Herát. He had quelled an insurrection of the Jamshidis, and had seized and put to death their leader, his own father-in-law; and now, the British having withdrawn from Kandahár, he meditated another blow for the throne of Afghánistán. During the months of April and May he was busy distributing inflammatory letters among the people and chiefs of Zámindáwar, and announced his intended advance on Kandahár. On the 3rd June, the old fort at Girishk was seized by one of his generals, Muhammad Hasan Khán. Ayúb Khán completely defeated the Amír's troops, a few days later, at Atá Karez, and on the 27th July he occupied the city of Kandahár.

Amír Abdur Rahman Khán, who up to this time had shown some want of spirit, and whose cause was very generally considered as lost, now fully redeemed his former credit as a soldier. He executed a march from Kábul to Kandahár with most creditable celerity, and on the 22nd September 1881 he defeated Ayúb close to the site of old Kandahár, taking all his guns and equipage. Sardár Ayúb Khán again fled in the direction of Herát, but that city was occupied by Sardár Abdul Kúdús Khán, a lieutenant of the Amír. Eventually Ayúb Khán took refuge in Persia, where he is at present a refugee.

Since these events, Kandahár and the neighbouring country have remained quiet. About 7000 regular troops are quartered there under General Ghulám Haidar Khán. The civil Governor is Sardár Núr Muhammad Khán, who has been in Kandahár since November 1882.

Kandápur.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Area, 525 square miles. Population (1871) 113,713; (1881) 115,113, namely, 54,185 males and 60,928 females, dwelling in 190 villages, containing 20,832 houses. Hindus number 107,959; Muhammadans, 4332; Christians, 2482; and 'others,' 340. In 1883, the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 15; regular police, 90 men. Land revenue, £21,230.

Kandápur.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 13° 38′ N., long. 74° 42′ E., 55 miles west of Mangalore. Population (1871) 2545; (1881) 2815. Hindus number 2180; Muhammadans, 399; Christians, 235; and 'others,' 1. Number of houses, 540. Formerly one of the principal ports of the Bednúr Ráj, after the disruption of the Vijayangar kingdom. In the 16th century, the Portuguese settled here and built a fort (which still exists a little

inland from the village), and a strong, well-built redoubt on the sea-face, commanding the entrance to the river. On this redoubt now stands the Head Assistant Collector's office and residence. It was from Kandápur that General Matthews started on his march against Bednúr. After being for a quarter of a century under Mysore, the town fell to the British in 1799, and was included in the District of Kánara. On the partition of that District in 1860, this part of it was temporarily attached to Bombay. The town is healthy, but its trade is languishing.

Kandarkha Khurd.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated on the river Madha, 14 miles from Faizábád town. Population (1881) 2380, namely, Hindus, 2216; and Muhammadans, 164. Founded and called after a Bisen chief named Khandar Sen about 500 years ago.

Kandeli (*Kandili*). — Town in Narsinghpur *tahsíl*, Narsingpur District, Central Provinces; situated one mile east from Narsinghpur town, from which it is separated by the Singri *nálá*. The Government District offices are situated in Kandeli, and most of the officials live here. Under the Gonds and Maráthás, Kandeli was a little village in the Sháhpur Sub-division, where the subordinate governor resided. Railway station one mile east of the town on the Great Indian Peninsula line from Jabalpur to Bombay. Seat of a small manufacture of cotton cloth.

Kándhla.—Town and municipality in Budhána *tahsíl*, Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 18′ 20″ N., long. 77° 19′ 5″ E. Situated on low ground, a little west of the Eastern Jumna Canal, 33 miles south-west of Muzaffarnagar town. Population (1872) 11,026; (1881) 11,109, namely, Hindus, 5221; Muhammadans, 5095; and Jains, 793. Area of town site, 148 acres. Agricultural town, with small local trade. Manufacture of saltpetre. Police station and post-office. Municipal revenue in 1882-83, £500; from taxes, £454, or 9¾d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Kandh-máls.—Tract of country in Bod Tributary State, Orissa, now under a loose form of British administration. The country consists of a broken plateau, intersected by ridges of low hills, the last refuge of the aboriginal Kandh (Khond) race. The villages are few in number, and divided from each other by rugged peaks and dense forests; but a regular system of government on the aboriginal plan is maintained, the hamlets being distributed into *mutas*, each *muta* being under the supervision of its own chief. Throughout this wild tract, the Kandhs claim an indefeasible right in the soil. They assert that the whole of Bod and also the neighbouring country was once theirs, and that they have been gradually pushed back into the recesses of the hills by unscrupulous invaders. At any rate, the Kandh-máls were never more than

or coerce them. After the British Government discovered the frequency of human sacrifice among the Kandhs, an Agency was established to put a stop to the practice (Act xxi. of 1845); and the Bod Rájá gladly ceded the Kandh-máls to us for the better suppression of these inhuman rites. The people are a wild, impulsive race; but the Commissioner of Orissa reports that for years they have lived peaceably under our rule. They pay no rent, and we take no revenue whatever from them, but merely keep order and prevent oppression by means of a *tahsíldár*, supported by a strong force of police. This officer's principal duties are to prevent, or put a stop to, blood-feuds, to adjust dangerous disputes, and to take cognisance of any serious crime. The Bod Rájá now exercises no authority in the Kandh-máls. The tract contains 885 villages or hamlets, and a total population in 1881 of 58,959 persons. Classified according to religion,—Hindus, 21,936, or 31·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 4; Christian, 1; aboriginal tribes, 37,018, or 68·2 per cent.; total, 58,959, namely, 30,031 males and 28,928 females. Proportion of males in total population, 51·3 per cent. The most valuable agricultural product is turmeric, of an unusually fine quality, which is bought up by traders from the plains. The Kandhs manifest a remarkable growing inclination towards education. The Commissioner recently reported that 'these people have submitted of their own wish, and indeed of their own motion, to a tax on liquor-shops, the proceeds of which are devoted to the establishment of schools. The tax has been realized without difficulty, and a number of schools have been opened. The school-houses have been built and are maintained by the people themselves.' Charitable dispensary at Bispárá. A fuller account of the interesting tribe inhabiting this tract will be found in the following article.

Kandhs ('the Hill-men').—Variously spelt *Kondhs*, *Khonds*, *Khands*, and *Khandhs*. An important aboriginal tribe, whose principal habitat now lies in the Tributary States of Orissa, the Eastern Districts or States of the Central Provinces, and the northern hill Districts of Madras. Recent investigations have shown that the Kandhs are in some Districts merging into the Hindu low castes; and their numbers, as stated by the Census officers, are admitted to be underestimated from this cause. The most trustworthy enumerations of the race were conducted, for the Orissa section of the tribe in 1872, and for the sections lying within the Central Provinces and Madras in 1881. They exhibit the following results:—

Kandhs in the Madras Presidency, 1881, . . .	205,045
Kandhs in the Central Provinces, 1881, . . .	147,768
Kandhs in Orissa, 1872, ...	77,192
Total, . . .	430,005

The tribe is one of a group of non-Aryan races—the Kandhs, the Kols, and the Savars—who still preserve the general geographical position to each other which they occupied 1500 years ago. The Suari of Pliny are the Sabaræ of Ptolemy, or the Savars of the present day, and their country is said to begin where that of the Kandhs ends. The Hindu settlers have during many centuries encroached upon the primitive territories of each of the non-Aryan tribes; and the Kandhs who appear on the Orissa delta as landless day-labourers, the clearers of jungle for the superior Hindu race, survive in the mountainous background as a distinct nationality, with a history, a religion, and a system of law and landed property of their own. Indeed, one section of the Kandhs was completely broken up and merged into the low castes of the Aryan or Hindu communities at the foot of the hills Another section stood its ground more firmly, and became a peasant militia, holding grants of land from the Hindu chiefs in return for military service. A third section fell back into the fastnesses of the mountains, and was recognised as a wild but free race. This fairly describes the present condition of the Kandhs in Orissa, in the northern Districts of Madras, and in the mountainous region which shuts out both these seaboard tracts from the Central Provinces.

In seven eastern States or Districts of the Central Provinces, the Kandhs are described as a recognised agricultural class, and it is to the ruder sections of the race, which still maintain a distinct tribal existence in the intermediate mountainous region, that the following description applies.

The Kandhs are regarded by Bishop Caldwell as allied to the Gonds, and are said to call themselves in certain tracts by the name of Kus. Some consider Kandh or Khond a kindred word with Gond, and derive both names from the Tamil *Kundru*, literally a small hill, which in Telugu takes the form of Konda. Mr. Latchmaji, the author of the grammar of their language, gives their own tribal name as *Kus*. a word evidently allied to *Kôi*, by which the Gonds also call themselves.

When questioned as to their origin, some of the Kandh tribes declare that they were driven westwards from the low country of Orissa, others that they have been pushed eastwards from Central India The two legends alike point to advancing waves of Hindu colonization—the one from Central India and the other from the Orissa delta. During historical times the head-quarters of the Kandhs was for long in the State of Bod, a broken plateau, intersected by low ridges, the last refuge of their race. A description of this tract is given in the previous article (KANDH-MALS, *q.v.*), and a full account of the race will be found in Hunter's *Orissa*, vol. ii. pp. 68 to 102 (1872). The following abstract of that account must here suffice.—

'The Kandh idea of government is purely patriarchal. The family

is strictly ruled by the father. The grown-up sons have no property during his life, but live in his house with their wives and children, and all share the common meal prepared by the grandmother. The clan consisted of a number of families, sprung from a common father; and the tribe was made up in like manner from a number of clans who claim descent from the same ancestor. The head of the tribe was usually the eldest son of the patriarchal family; but if not fit for the post he was set aside, and an uncle or a younger brother appointed. He could enter on no undertaking without calling together the heads of clans, who in their turn consulted the heads of families.

'According to the Kandh theory of existence, a state of war might be lawfully presumed against all neighbours with whom no express agreement had been made to the contrary. Murders were punished by blood-revenge, the kinsmen within a certain degree being one and all bound to kill the slayer, unless appeased by a payment of grain or cattle. The man who accidentally or wrongfully wounded another had to maintain the sufferer until he recovered from his hurt. A stolen article must be returned, or its equivalent paid; but the Kandh twice convicted of theft was driven forth from his tribe, the greatest punishment known to the race. Disputes were settled by combat, or by the ordeal of boiling oil or heated iron, or by taking a solemn oath on an ant-hill, or on a tiger's claw, or a lizard's skin. When a house-father died, leaving no sons. his land was parcelled out among the other male heads of the village; for no woman, nor indeed any Kandh, was allowed to hold land who could not with his own hand defend it. The patriarch, or the tribal assembly, was wont to summon the clansmen to war by an arrow borne by swift messengers from glen to glen. The Kandh adorned himself for battle as for a feast, and his fights resembled in many respects the listed combats of mediæval chivalry, such as that described by Sir Walter Scott in *The Fair Maid of Perth*. The most approved form was to go on fighting day after day until one party or the other was wholly exterminated.

'An eye-witness has described a conflict which lasted for three days, the challenge being renewed every morning by throwing down a piece of bloody cloth upon the battle-field. Such a fight yielded a pleasurable excitement not only to the warriors themselves, but to both their villages. The women and old men past bearing arms stood close behind the combatants during the conflict, handing them pots of water and cooked food, with much good advice as to the conduct of the fight. When the first man fell, all rushed to dip their axes in his blood, and hacked the body in pieces; while the man who slew his enemy without getting a wound himself, hewed off the right arm from the corpse, and ran with it to the priest among the non-combatants in the rear, as an offering to the God of War. Before evening a great heap of

right arms had thus accumulated on each rear,—one side having lost sixty men, and the other thirty, besides at least as many more mortally wounded, as the result of the first day's pastime.

'The Kandh uses a curiously carved sword with singular effect and dexterity, besides the two-handed axe, a bow and arrows, and a sling. He disdains any shield, but guards with the handle of his axe. His favourite bowshot is a sort of ricochet, the arrow touching the ground with its heel "at a short distance from its object, which it strikes in rising, below the line of vision." The Kandh never claims the victory as the reward of his personal valour, but invariably, and with perfect good faith, ascribes it to the favour of his god.

'The Kandh system of tillage represents a stage half-way between the migratory cultivation of the ruder non-Aryan tribes and the settled agriculture of the Hindus. They do not, on the one hand, merely burn down a patch in the jungle, take a few crops off it, and then move on to fresh clearings. Nor, on the other hand, do they go on cultivating the same fields from father to son. When their lands show signs of exhaustion, they desert them; and it was a rule in some of their settlements to change their village sites once in fourteen years. Caste is unknown; and, as among the Santáls, marriage between relations, or even within the same tribe, is forbidden. A Kandh wedding consists of forcibly carrying off the bride in the middle of a feast. The boy's father pays a price for the girl, and usually chooses a strong one, several years older than his son. In this way, Kandh maidens are married at about fourteen, Kandh boys at about ten. The bride remains as a servant in her new father-in-law's house till her boy-husband grows old enough to live with her. She generally acquires a great influence over him; and a Kandh may not marry a second wife during the life of his first one, except with her consent.

'The Kandh engages only in husbandry and war, and despises all other work. But attached to each village is a row of hovels inhabited by a lower race, who are not allowed to hold land, to go forth to battle, or to join in the village worship. These poor people do the dirty work of the hamlet, and supply families of hereditary weavers, blacksmiths, potters, herdsmen, and distillers. They are kindly treated, and a portion of each feast is (or used to be) left for them. But they can never rise in the social scale. No Kandh could engage in their work without degradation, nor can he eat food prepared by their hands. They can give no account of their origin, but are supposed to be the remnants of a ruder race whom the Kandhs found in possession of the hills when they themselves were pushed backwards by the Aryans from the plains. When the British first came into the country these "attached families" were practically village serfs, and represented even a lower stage of social existence than the outcasts of a Hindu village.

'The Kandhs, like the Santáls, have many deities, race-gods, tribe-gods, family-gods, and a multitude of malignant spirits and demons. But their great divinity is the Earth-god, who represents the productive energy of nature. Twice each year, at sowing-time and at harvest, before or after battle, and in all seasons of special calamity, the Earth-god required a human sacrifice. The duty of providing the victims rested with the lower race attached to the Kandh village. Bráhmans and Kandhs were the only classes exempted from sacrifice, and an ancient rule ordained that the offering *must be bought with a price.* Men of the lower race kidnapped the victims from the plains, and a thriving Kandh village usually kept a small stock in reserve, "to meet sudden demands for atonement." The victim, on being brought to the hamlet, was welcomed at every threshold, daintily fed, and kindly treated till the fatal day arrived. He was then solemnly sacrificed to the Earth-god, the Kandhs shouting in his dying ear, "We bought you with a price; no sin rests with us!" His flesh and blood were distributed among the village fields, or worked into the furrows.

'In 1835, the Kandhs passed under our rule, and these rites had to cease. Their proud spirit shrank from compulsion; but after many tribal councils, they agreed to give up their stock of victims as a valuable present to their new suzerain. Care was taken that they should not procure fresh ones. The kidnapping of victims for human sacrifice was declared a capital offence; and their priests were led to discover that goats or buffaloes did quite as well for the Earth-god under British rule as human sacrifices. Hitherto they had consisted of separate tribes, always at war with each other and with the world. Under able English administrators (especially Campbell, Macpherson, and Cadenhead), human sacrifices were abolished, and the Kandhs were formed into a united and peaceful race (1837-45). The British officer removed their old necessity for tribal wars and family blood-feuds by setting himself up as a central authority. He adjusted their inter-tribal disputes, and punished heinous crimes. Major Samuel Charters Macpherson, in particular, won over the more troublesome clans to quiet industry. He made the chiefs vain of carrying out his orders by small presents of cattle, honorific dresses, and titles. He enlisted the whole race on his side by picking out their best men for the police; and drew the tribes into amicable relations among themselves by means of hill-fairs. He constructed roads, and taught them to trade, with a view to "drawing them from their fastnesses into friendly contact with other men." The race has prospered and multiplied under British rule. "The voluntary and permanent acknowledgment of our sovereignty," wrote Macpherson, "must depend upon our ability to discharge beneficially and acceptably towards them the duty of sovereignty. They will yield allegiance to us only in return for advantages which are suited in form and in spirit to

their leading ideas, and to their social wants." The patriarchal authority within each Kandh tribe was still perfect, but centuries of clan feuds had taught them the evils caused by the want of any power sufficiently strong to enforce arbitration between the various tribes. "Justice," continued Macpherson, "betwixt the independent societies, is, in a word, the great want felt by all." Setting out with this idea of Government having a right to exist only if it could discharge certain specific functions really required by the people, this young officer gradually gained over the priesthood and the village heads. He appealed to their passionate desire to own land, by grants of jungle tracts of little use to us but a paradise to them, and where he could keep them well under his eye. But while he thus laboured by gentle and politic devices to win the affections of the race, he made it distinctly understood that such measures of conciliation would, if necessary, be enforced by the British power. The Kandhs are now a peaceable, easily-managed race; and Hindu traders journey with safety through the recesses of their hills.'

Kándí.—Sub-division of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Area, 389 square miles, with 618 towns or villages, and 62,500 houses, of which 57,242 are occupied. Total population (1881) 223,958, namely, males 106,166, and females 117,792; proportion of males in total population, 47·4 per cent.; average density, 575·73 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, 1·59; persons per village, 362; houses per square mile, 160·67; persons per house, 3·91. Hindus numbered 156,807; Muhammadans, 66,936; and aboriginal tribes, 215. In 1873, the Sub-division of Kándí was abolished in consequence of transfers to and from Bírbhúm. It was, however, reconstituted as a Sub-division of Murshidábád, but with a reduced area, in 1879. It comprises the three police circles of Kándí (including Baruah), Bharatpur, and Khargáon. In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 1 revenue court, with a regular police force of 129 men, and a village watch of 1684 men.

Kándí (or *Jámu Kándí*).—Town and municipality in Murshidábád District, Bengal, and head-quarters of the Kándí Sub-division; situated in the extreme south-east of the District, at the point where the river Mor enters from Bírbhúm. Lat. 23° 58′ N., long. 88° 5′ 1″ E. Population (1872) 12,016; (1881) 10,661, namely, Hindus 9309, and Muhammadans 1352. Municipal income in 1882, £772. Kándí owes much of its importance to the circumstance that it is the residence of the Rájás of Páikpárá, a wealthy and devout Hindu family. The founder of this family was Gangá Govind Singh, the *baniyá* of Warren Hastings, who was born at Kándí, and retired thither in his old age with an immense fortune, which he devoted to the erection of shrines and images of Krishna. His name has acquired a traditional celebrity for the most magnificent *sraddha*, or

funeral obsequies, ever performed in Bengal. This was celebrated in honour of his mother, and is stated to have cost 20 *lákhs* of rupees, or £200,000. The guests on the occasion included the Rájás and *zamíndárs* of half Bengal, presided over by the Bráhman Rájá Sib Chandra of Krishnagar, in Nadiya. They are said to have been fed with fresh holy rice from Jagannáth, brought by relays of posts from Purí to Kándí.

Kandiáro.—*Táluk* of Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, situated between 26° 54′ 30″ and 27° 15′ N. lat., and between 68° 7′ 45″ and 68° 30′ 30″ E. long. Population (1872) 47,768; (1881) 39,336, namely, 20,471 males and 18,865 females, dwelling in 7180 houses. Muhammadans numbered 31,007, or 78·8 per cent. of the total; Hindus, 1958; Sikhs, 6304; aboriginal tribes, 59; and Christians, 8. Area, 315 square miles; number of *tapás*, 7; number of towns, 2; villages, 61. Revenue in 1880–81, £871, of which £818 was derived from imperial and £53 from local sources. In 1882–83, of the total area (55,831 acres) assessed for land revenues, 41,927 acres were under cultivation. The *táluk* contains 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 4; regular police, 23 men.

Kandiáro.—Town in the Kandiáro *táluk*, Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the Nasrát Canal, in lat. 27° 4′ N., and long. 68° 15′ E. Distant north-east from Tháru Sháh 10 miles, from Kamál Dero 6 miles, Darbelo 6 miles, Bhíria 10 miles, Mohbat Dero Jatoi 7 miles, Mohbat Dero Siál 10 miles, and Lákha 6 miles, with all which places it has road communication. Kandiáro is the head-quarters station of a *mukhtiárkár* and *tapadár*, with their establishments, and has police lines for 11 men. There are, besides, a subordinate judge's court, post-office, market, school-house, District bungalow, and *dharmsála*. The municipality, established in February 1861, had an income in 1882–83 of £145; municipal expenditure, £108; incidence of taxation, 1s. per head of municipal population. Population (1872) 2578; (1881) 2367. The principal occupation of the people is agriculture, but the Hindu portion of the inhabitants are engaged in trade, which is mainly in grain and cloth. Manufactures of coarse paper and country cloth. The town of Kandiáro is said to have been built during the reign of the Emperor Jahángír. Before it was built, there was another in existence close to it, called Patoipur, which was abandoned, owing to an unusual rise of the inundation waters. The site of the present town was then chosen as being somewhat more elevated; and having at the time a large number of *kandi* (Prosopis spicigera) trees growing upon it, the place took, it is supposed, from this circumstance the name of Kandiáro.

Kandilí.—Town in Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* KANDELI.

Kandráwan.—Town in Salon *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated on the bank of the Ganges on the road from Salon to Mustáfábád, 30 miles from Rái Bareli town, and 6 from Mánikpur. Population (1881) 3599, namely, 3525 Hindus, and 74 Muhammadans. Government school. Temple to Mahádeo.

Kandukúr.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 14° 59′ to 15° 30′ N., long. 79° 40′ to 80° 10′ E. Area, 718 square miles. Population (1881) 126,757, namely, 63,449 males and 63,308 females, dwelling in 168 villages, containing 23,552 houses. Hindus number 119,005; Muhammadans, 5249; Christians, 2501; and 'others,' 2. The country consists of extensive plains devoted to dry crop cultivation on a superior soil. The cattle are celebrated throughout the Presidency. Every village has a handsome tope or cluster of trees. In the western part of the *táluk* is situated the *zamíndárí* of Chundi, separated from the Kanigiri *táluk* by a range of hills running north and south for about 15 miles They are of considerable elevation, and the slopes are covered with dense jungle. In 1883 there were 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 83 men; land revenue, £27,974.

Kandukúr.—Town in the Kandukúr *táluk* of Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 12′ 20″ N., long. 79° 57′ E. Population (1871) 7101; (1881) 6601, namely, 3282 males and 3319 females, dwelling in 1269 houses. Hindus numbered 5423; Muhammadans, 1117; and Christians, 61. It is the head-quarters of Kandukúr *táluk*, and contains an old hill fort. Noted for its breed of cattle. *Tahsíldár's* court; post-office.

Kaner.—Petty State in Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village. Situated three miles to the north-west of Lákhápádar *thánd*. Population (1881) 248. Estimated revenue in 1876, £200; tribute of £19, 10s. paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kanera.—Village in Udaipur Native State, Rájputána. Situated 80 miles east of Udaipur city. The site of an annual fair. A celebrated temple is here built under a precipice, near which is a curious horizontal cleft in the rock, containing a small pool, from which slightly warm water constantly trickles. The temple is known as that of Supdeojí.

Kángayam (*Kongium, Kongu*).—Town in the Dhárápuram *táluk* of Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 1′ N., long. 77° 36′ E. Population (1871) 6553; (1881) 5238, namely, 2515 males and 2723 females; number of houses, 1178. Hindus, 5128; Muhammadans, 105; and Christians, 5. Head-quarters, till 1874, of a Sub-Collector. Once famous for its breed of cattle. A market town, connected by

good roads with 3 railway stations. In the name of this town lingers the only trace of the ancient kingdom of Kongu.

Kángra.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 31° 20′ and 33° N. lat., and between 75° 39′ and 78° 35′ E. long. Kángra forms the north-eastern District of the Jálandhar (Jullundur) Division. This vast tract stretches eastwards from the plain country of the Bári and Jálandhar Doábs over the Himálayan ranges, and far into Tibet. It is bounded on the north-east by the great Himálayan range which forms the valley of the Upper Indus, and separates the District from the Tibetan region of Rakshu and the territories of the Chinese Empire; on the south-east by the Hill States of Bashahr (Bassáhir), Mandi, and Biláspur (Kahlúr); on the south-west by Hoshiárpur District; and on the north-west by the Chaki torrent which divides it from the hill portion of Gurdáspur District, and by the Native State of Chamba. The District is divided into five *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions, of which those of Hamírpur, Dera, and Núrpur proceeding from east to west lie along the south-western border, together with the Kángra valley, among or below the outer Himálayas. The Kángra *tahsíl* occupies the centre of the District, and connects by a narrow neck, known as Bangáhal, the three first-named *tahsíls* with the outlying tract that forms the Kúlu *tahsíl*. This last includes Kúlu Proper to the south of the Pír Panjab or mid-Himálayan range; and the outlying cantons of Láhul and Spiti, which may be said to belong geographically rather to Tibet than to India. Kángra stands second in order of area, and ninth in order of population, among the 32 Districts of the Punjab, comprising 8·51 per cent. of the total area, and 3·88 per cent. of the total population of the Province. Area, 9069 square miles. Population (1881) 730,845 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the sanitarium of DHARMSALA, among the spurs of the Dháola Dhár, about twelve miles north-east of Kángra town.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Kángra is an artificial administrative division, comprising a vast and heterogeneous tract, which extends eastward from the plain country of the Bári and Jálandhar (Jullundur) Doábs, across two distinct Himálayan ranges, far into the heart of Tibet. In shape it forms two separate blocks, lying on either side of the outer Himálayan chain, which bounds the horizon of the Punjab plains. The western block, which constitutes Kángra Proper, consists of an irregular triangle, whose base lies upon the Hoshiárpur border, while the Native States of Chamba and Mandi constrict its upper portion to a narrow neck, known as Bangáhal, at one point less than ten miles in width. Beyond this point, the eastern block expands once more like an hour-glass, and embraces the mid-Himálayan tract of KULU, with the Tibetan Sub-divisions of LAHUL and SPITI. The District thus

naturally falls into three parts; the sub-Himálayan country of Kángra Proper, with an area of 2620 square miles, and a population of 613,626, or 234 per square mile; the mid-Himálayan tract, including the Kúlu valley, and Bangáhal (lying partly on the Kángra and partly on the Kúlu side of the outer range), with an area of 2039 square miles, and a population of 108,497, or 53 per square mile; and the rugged outer region of the Tibetan slopes, comprising the cantons of Láhul and Spiti, with an area of 4410 square miles, and a population of 8722, or only [illegible] persons per square mile.

The heights of these ridges and the interlying valleys increase in a progressive ratio as they recede from the plains. Budi Pind, on the border of Hoshiárpur District, has an elevation of only 937 feet above sea-level, the first or lower range has an average elevation of between 3500 and 4000 feet, while the third range rises to elevations varying from 3900 to 15,956 feet in the Dháola Dhár or Snowy Range, which forms the northern boundary of Kángra Proper. Beyond this, a transverse ridge, the Bará Bangáhal, towers in Kúlu into peaks of from 17,000 to over 20,000 feet.

The breadth of these ranges and the intervening distances are very uncertain and arbitrary. The ridge which bounds the plains has a uniform width of about twelve miles, and the sides descend in nearly equal angles from the summit. The second range does not possess the same simplicity of structure, though generally more regular than any of the ranges to the north. In its upper portion, the declivities on either flank slope gradually down, affording sites for villages and terraced cultivation. But when the chain divides into two separate branches, the aspect is essentially altered; the hills rise abruptly from the valley below, and the ascent on both sides becomes toilsome and severe; the inclination is too great for anything but forest and underwood to grow. There is usually, however, a good deal of table-land at the top; and though the sides are uninhabited, the crest of the range is occupied by villages, and assiduously cultivated. To the north of this range, the hills run into every variety of form and structure. As a general rule, the southern slopes are wild and forbidding, and the crests rugged and angular, affording scarcely room for the foot to tread. But the northern flank of such a range will often offer a striking contrast. The descent becomes gradual and easy, and the jungle and rocks which obstructed the traveller on the other side give way to open fields and farm-houses, extending in successive tiers to the stream below. The contour of the snowy range itself, the Dháola Dhár, is of the same nature. Its appearance towards the plains is abrupt and perpendicular; while the northern spurs sweep in long and gentle slopes to the river Rávi. In other parts, again, the entire range will be covered with dense woods, unrelieved by a single trace of civilised life. Here and there, on crags

chain and flows north-westward, also into Chamba. From the great variety of the different tracts included in the District by modern arrangements, it is impossible to assign any general physical peculiarities to the whole beyond their common characteristic as mountainous regions, intersected by snowy chains and scored by deep river valleys. The western portion, abutting on the Punjab plains, admits of cultivation, and supports a comparatively dense Hindu population; while the bare and sterile eastern glens of Spiti are sparsely inhabited by a Tibetan race. Further particulars will be found under the separate headings of KANGRA PROPER, KULU, LAHUL, and SPITI.

Forests.—The area occupied by forest is roughly estimated at 300,000 acres. The forests are situated for the most part on the northern slopes of the ranges, and contain much useful timber; while, owing to the great range of elevation, all zones are represented, from the tropical bamboo which clothes the lower hills, to the alpine vegetation, oak, pine, and rhododendron of the higher ranges. Merchants from Ludhiána occasionally come up and cut the extensive bamboo forests in the neighbourhood of the river Sutlej. Of pines by far the commonest and most useful is the *chil* (Pinus longifolia), which grows luxuriantly on the northern declivity of the inner hills. Detached trees are found in the Jawála Mukhi valley at an elevation of only 1600 feet above sea-level, and the same species is found in the snowy ranges as high as 7000 feet. The luxuriance and compactness of the timber increase with the elevation up to 5000 or 6000 feet, and the climate of this region is the best suited for its development; above and below this point the tree gradually deteriorates. The wood of this tree is not held in much repute, and if allowed to lie in the forest exposed to the weather, the timber becomes perfectly decomposed in the course of two years. It is largely used for conversion into charcoal; and in the more accessible situations, this tree has now become scarce. Two other species of pine are found in the snowy range above Dharmsála, growing at an elevation of from 8000 to 11,000 feet—the *rai* (Abies Smithiana) and the *tos* (Abies Webbiana); but although the trees are exceedingly handsome, with straight stems, and attain a height of from 90 to 100 feet in height, the timber is said to be inferior to that of the *chil*, and is only utilized for cutting shingles for roofing. The deodar or *kelu* (Cedrus deodara) is not found in Kángra Proper, but fine forests exist in the Kúlu Subdivision. In the Dháola Dhár range and in Kúlu are many varieties of oak. The commonest kind is the *bán* (Quercus incana), which grows at an elevation of between 3000 and 8000 feet. Another variety of oak, the *kharsúi* (Quercus semecarpifolia), grows at an elevation of 8000 feet, and ascends beyond even the range of pines. The other Himálayan trees include several varieties of rhododendron, the horse chestnut, holly, sycamore, yew, elder, wild medlar, a species of poplar,

and the birch. In the lower ranges and valleys are isolated trees of *tún* (Cedrela toona) and *shisham* (Dalbergia sissoo). There is only one forest of *sál* (Shorea robusta), at Andreta in the Pálam valley. Several species of acacia are found in the lower hills bordering on the plains, the two most valuable being the *siris* (Acacia sirissa), and the *khair* (Acacia catechu). The other valuable timber trees include the *jamún* (Eugenia Jambolana), *arjún* (Terminalia Arjuna) *kakar* or *kakren* (Rhus punjabensis), a handsome yellow-grained wood, *karambh* (Zizyphus xylopyra), *kaimal* (Ficus infectoria), *badror* (Machilus odoratissimus), and the *chámba* (Jasminum revolutum). The banyan tree, *bor* or *bar* (Ficus indica), the *pipal* (Ficus religiosa), and the *sembhal* or *simul* (Bombax heptaphyllum), are commonly found up to an elevation of 4000 feet. One of the most common trees on the ridges of the fields is the *dháman*, the branches of which are cut in winter as fodder for the cattle. Wild fruits include the cherry, raspberry, blackberry, barberry, strawberry, medlar, fig, and *ber* (Zizyphus jujuba). Almost every dwelling in the hills is encircled with fruit-trees of various kinds in a half-wild, half-cultivated state. The most common cultivated fruit-trees are the mulberry, mango, plantain, peach, pomegranate, lime, citron, orange, and in the higher villages walnut and apricot. In gardens belonging to the more wealthy classes may be added the vine, apple, plum, and guava.

Minerals.—Valuable metal ores are known to exist in the Kángra hills, and are worked with sufficient results to meet local demands; but difficulties of carriage, and scantiness of fuel in the vicinity of the works, have hitherto formed an effectual bar to the prospect of profitably working the mines on a large scale. Iron is the metal most largely worked, but antimony, lead, and copper are also found. Gold in minute quantities exists in the sands of the Beas. Coal, or rather lignite, is also produced, but in insignificant quantities. The iron mines, eight in number in 1883, are in the Bangáhal tract, which extends for some 14 miles along the banks of the river Ul, its centre being at the village of Dharmáni, where the principal mines are situated. The ore is in the form of crystals of magnetic oxide of iron embedded in decomposed and friable mica schists, and is worked from open quarries. It is one of the most valuable forms of ore, being readily reduced by charcoal, in furnaces of the simplest description, and yielding the very best quality of iron. Specimens sent to England for testing proved to be superior to the best English, and quite equal to any imported Swedish iron. Notwithstanding its high quality, the excessive cost of production, principally caused by difficulties in the way of carriage, prevents the iron from being used for other than special local purposes, and from competing with cheaper English-imported iron. The eight mines yielded an out-turn of only

90 *maunds* or $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons in 1882–83. The Kúlu Sub-division especially possesses great potential wealth, which only requires facilities of communication to allow of its proper development. In the Wazírí Rúpi tract, veins of silver, copper, and lead have been discovered; and in 1869, a monopoly of working the mines in this division was granted to an English gentleman. His proceedings, however, were not attended with any marked success, and the lease was cancelled in 1883. Negotiations with several English capitalists for a fresh lease were in progress in 1884. Slates of good quality are found in many places in Kángra Proper and in Kúlu. They are too coarse for many purposes to which slates are usually applied, but from their hardness, they are superior in durability to Welsh slates. Many quarries are worked by natives on the ranges surrounding Dharmsála, and European capital has been applied to working quarries at Kanána with much success. The use of slates for roofing is extending, and the majority of well-to-do people within easy reach of the quarries have adopted it for their houses. The slates are also exported to Jálandhar, Ambálá, and other places in the Punjab. The greater portion of the out-turn is consumed locally, but the heavy cost of carriage alone stands in the way of a large export. Sandstone of various degrees of hardness, and suitable for building purposes, is found throughout the District. Limestone in great abundance exists in the Upper Kángra range; and the salt-rock of the neighbouring State of Mandi can be traced over the border into the District.

In the neighbourhood of Jawála Mukhi, a town 22 miles south of Kángra fort, there occur at intervals, extending over some 30 miles of country, six mineral springs, issuing from the southern base of the Jawála Mukhi hills. They contain a considerable quantity of chloride of sodium or common salt, together with iodine in the form of iodide of potassium. Hot sulphur springs are numerous in Kúlu Sub-division, the best known of which are at Mánikarn, Basisht, and Kalát, the first in the valley of the Párbati, and the two latter on the banks of the Beas. At Mánikarn the springs are above boiling point, and rice is cooked in the water simply by placing the grain in a bag and throwing it into the pool. The springs are much resorted to by pilgrims and diseased persons from all parts of India.

Fauna.—The forests of Kángra District abound with game of all descriptions. Of the larger animals, leopards, bears, hyænas, wolves, and various kinds of deer are common. Tigers visit the District occasionally, but are not indigenous to these hills. The ibex is found in Láhul, Spiti, Kúlu, and Bará Bangáhal; and the musk deer in Kúlu and on the slopes of the Dháola Dhár. The wild hog is common in many forests in the lower ranges. Of smaller quadrupeds, the badger, porcupine, ant-eater, and otter are commonly found. Different [illegible]

of wild cat, the flying squirrel, hare, and marmot abound in the hills. Game birds are particularly abundant, the ornithology of both hill and plain being richly represented. Several species of pheasant are found, among which are the *múnál* and argus, famous for their plumage, which fetches a high price in Europe. The most common species is the white-crested pheasant. The red jungle-fowl is met with in all parts of the lower valleys. Of partridges many species are found, from the common *chikor* of the plains to the snow partridge of the Upper Himálayas. Quail and snipe are common. Ducks, geese, and other water birds are seen upon the Beas at the beginning and end of summer, but not as permanent visitors. Fishing is not carried on to any great extent. Thirty-six fisheries are leased out to contractors, mostly on the Beas, a few only being in the lower parts of the hill torrents.

History.—The hills of Kángra Proper have formed for many centuries the dominions of numerous petty princes, all of whom traced their descent to the ancient Katoch (Rájput) kings of Jálandhar (Jullundur). According to the mythical chronology of the *Mahábhárata*, their dynasty first established itself in the country between the Sutlej and the Beas fifteen hundred years before the Christian era. In the 7th century A.D., Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, found the Jálandhar monarchy still undivided. At some later period, perhaps that of the Musalmán invasion, the Katoch princes were driven into the hills, where Kángra already existed as one of their chief fortresses, and their restricted dominions appear afterwards to have fallen asunder into several minor principalities. Some of these now belong politically to Hoshiárpur District, while some still remain independent: but the States of Núrpur, Síba, Goler, Bangáhal, and Kángra are included in the modern British Sub-division of Kángra Proper. In spite of constant invasions, the little Hindu kingdoms, secure within their Himálayan glens, long held out against the aggressive Musalmán power. In 1009, the riches of the Nagarkot temple attracted the attention of Mahmúd of Ghazní, who defeated the Hindu princes at Peshávar, seized the fort of Kángra, and plundered the shrine of an immense booty in gold, silver, and jewels. But, thirty-five years later, the mountaineers rose against the Muhammadan garrison, besieged and retook the fort, with the assistance of the Rájá of Delhi, and set up a fac-simile of the image which Mahmúd had carried away. From this time, Kángra does not reappear in general history till 1360, when the Emperor Firoz Tughlak again led a force against it. The Rájá gave in his submission, and was permitted to retain his dominions: but the Muhammadans once more plundered the temple, and despatched the famous image to Mecca, where it was cast upon the high road to be trodden under the feet of the faithful.

Two hundred years later, in 1556, Akbar commanded in person

an expedition into the hills, and succeeded in permanently occupying the fort of Kángra. The fruitful valley was made into an imperial demesne, and only the barren hills remained in the possession of the native chiefs. In the graphic language of Akbar's famous minister, Todar Mall, 'he cut off the meat and left the bones.' Yet the remoteness of the imperial capital and the natural strength of the mountain fastnesses encouraged the Rájput princes to rebel, and the Emperor Jahángir was twice engaged (in 1615 and 1628) in reducing his unruly Katoch vassals to subjection. On the last occasion, 22 chieftains promised obedience and tribute, and agreed to send hostages to Agra. At one time, Jahángir intended to build a summer residence in the valley, and the site of the proposed palace is still pointed out in the lands of the village of Gargari. Probably the superior attractions of Kashmír, which the Emperor shortly afterwards visited, led to the abandonment of his design. By the time of the accession of Sháh Jahán, the hill Rájás had quietly settled down into the position of tributaries, and the commands of the Emperor were received and executed with ready obedience. Letters patent (*sanads*) are still extant, issued between the reigns of Akbar and Aurangzeb, appointing individuals to various judicial and revenue offices such as that of *kázi*, *kánúngo*, or *chaudhari*. In some instances, the present representatives of the family continue to enjoy privileges and powers conferred on their ancestors by the Mughal Emperors, the honorary appellation being retained even where the duties have become obsolete.

During the period of Muhammadan ascendancy the hill princes appear on the whole to have been liberally treated. They still enjoyed a considerable share of power, and ruled unmolested over the extensive tracts which yet remained to them. They built forts, made war upon each other, and wielded the functions of petty sovereigns. On the demise of a chief, his successor paid the fees of investiture, and received a confirmation of his title, with an honorary dress from Agra or Delhi. The loyalty of the hill Rájás appears to have won the favour and confidence of their conquerors, and they were frequently deputed on hazardous expeditions, and appointed to places of high trust in the service of the Empire. Thus in the time of Sháh Jahán (1646), Jagat Chand, Rájá of Núrpur, at the head of 14,000 Rájputs, raised in his own country, conducted a most difficult but successful enterprise against the Uzbeks of Balkh and Badakshán. Again in the early part of the reign of Aurangzeb (1661), Rájá Mandata, grandson of Jagat Chand, was deputed to the charge of Bamián and Ghorband on the western frontier of the Mughal Empire, eight days' journey beyond the city of Kábul. Twenty years after he was a second time appointed to this honourable post, and created a *mansabdár* of 2000 horse. In later days (1758), Rájá Ghamand Chand of Kángra

was appointed Governor of the Jálandhar Doáb and the hill country between the Satlaj and Rávi.

In 1752, the Katoch principalities nominally formed part of the territories ceded to Ahmad Sháh Durání by the declining Delhi court. But the native chieftains, emboldened by the prevailing anarchy, resumed their practical independence, and left little to the Durání Sultán or to the Deputy who still held the isolated fort of Kángra for the Mughal Empire. In 1774, the Sikh chieftain, Jai Singh, obtained the fort by stratagem, but relinquished it in 1785 to Sansár Chand, the legitimate Rájput prince of Kángra, to whom the State was thus restored about two centuries after its occupation by Akbar. This prince, by his vigorous measures, made himself supreme throughout the whole Katoch country, and levied tribute from his fellow-chieftains in all the neighbouring States. Every year, on fixed occasions, these princes were obliged to attend his court, and to accompany him with their contingents wherever he undertook a military expedition. For twenty years he reigned supreme throughout these hills, and raised his name to a height of renown never attained by any ancestor of his race. He found himself unable, however, to cope with the Sikhs, and two descents upon the Sikh possessions in the plains, in 1803 and 1804, were repelled by Ranjít Singh. In 1805, Sansár Chand attacked the hill State of Biláspur (Kahlúr), which called in the dangerous aid of the Gúrkhas, already masters of the wide tract between the Gogra and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The Gúrkhas responded to the call by crossing the latter river, and attacking the Katoches at Mahal Mori, in May 1806. The invaders gained a complete victory, overran a large part of the hill country of Kángra, and kept up a constant warfare with the Rájput chieftains who still retained the remainder. The people fled as refugees to the plains, while the minor princes aggravated the general disorder by acts of anarchy on their own account. The horrors of the Gúrkha invasion still burn in the memories of the people. The country ran with blood, not a blade of cultivation was to be seen, and grass grew and tigers whelped in the streets of the deserted towns. At length, after three years of lawlessness, Sansár Chand determined to invoke the assistance of the Sikhs. Ranjít Singh, always ready to seize upon every opportunity for aggression, entered Kángra and gave battle to the Gúrkhas, in August 1809. After a long and furious contest, the Mahárájá was successful, and the Gúrkhas abandoned their conquests beyond the Sutlej. Ranjít Singh at first guaranteed to Sansár Chand the possession of all his dominions except the fort of Kángra and 66 villages, allotted for the support of the garrison; but he gradually made encroachments upon all the hill chieftains. Sansár Chand died in 1824, an obsequious tributary of Lahore. His son, Anrúd Chand, succeeded him, but after a reign of four years abandoned his throne, and exiled

himself to Hardwár, rather than submit to a demand from Ranjít Singh for the hand of his sister in marriage to a son of the Sikh minister Dhián Singh. Immediately after Anrúd's flight in 1828, Ranjít Singh attached the whole of his territory, and the last portion of the once powerful Kángra State came finally into the possession of the Sikhs.

Kángra passed to the British at the end of the first Sikh war in 1845; but the commandant of the fort held out for some time on his own account. When the Múltán (Mooltan) insurrection broke out in April 1848, emissaries from the plains incited the hill chieftains to revolt, and at the end of August in the same year, Rám Singh, a Pathánia Rájput, collected a band of adventurers and threw himself into the fort of Sháhpur. Shortly afterwards, the Katoch chief rebelled in the eastern extremity of the District, and was soon followed by the Rájás of Jaswan and Datárpur, and the Sikh priest, Bedi Bikramá Singh. The revolt, however, was speedily suppressed, and after the victory of Gujrát, the insurgent chiefs received sentence of banishment to Almora, while Kángra subsided quietly into a British District. After the outbreak of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1857, some disturbances took place in Kúlu Sub-division, but the vigorous measures of precaution adopted by the local authorities, and the summary execution of the six ringleaders and imprisonment of others on the occasion of the first overt act of rebellion, effectually subdued any tendency to lawlessness. The disarming of the Native troops in the forts of Kángra and Núrpur was effected quietly and without opposition. Nothing has since occurred to disturb the peace of the District. For the history of LAHUL, SPITI, and KULU, see the articles on those Sub-divisions.

Population.—The Census of 1868 returned the total number of inhabitants for the whole District at 743,882. In 1881, the Census taken over the same area returned a population of 730,845, being a decrease of 13,037, or 1·76 per cent., as compared with the returns of 13 years previous. This decrease is, however, believed to be only apparent. Although railway and other works have induced emigration from the valley of Kángra Proper, where the number of inhabitants is very large in proportion to the cultivable area, there were also errors in the previous Census. In 1868, the enumeration was not a synchronous one, and no precautions were taken against double enumeration in Láhul and Spiti, so that when these tracts were censused after the opening of the passes in spring, a considerable population was counted over again who had already been enumerated during the winter months in the lower valleys of Kángra and Kúlu. Another cause of the decrease, especially in the Dehra and Hamírpur *tahsils*, is stated to be due to the late Afghán war, these *tahsils* supplying a large number of recruits. The details of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 9069 square miles; number of towns and

villages, 681; number of houses, 112,430; number of families, 151,672; total population, 730,845. From these data the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 81; villages or townships per square mile, ·08; houses per square mile, 15; persons per village, 1073; persons per house, 6·5. But these figures yield results which cannot in every case be compared with those of other Districts, as the population of the Kángra lowlands is comparatively thick, while that of the eastern glens is very scattered, amounting in the Láhul and Spiti tracts, which occupy nearly one-half the area of the entire District, to a density of only 2 persons to the square mile, while in the Kúlu tract the density is 53, and in Kángra Proper, as high as 234 to the square mile. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 380,867; females, 349,978; proportion of males, 52·11 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—142,173 boys, 129,749 girls; total children, 271,922, or 37·2 per cent. of the whole population. As regards religious distinctions, Hindus numbered 687,635; Muhammadans, 39,148; Buddhists, 2860; Sikhs, 738; Jains, 133; Christians, 327; and Pársís, 4. The Hindu element thus enormously preponderates over the Muhammadan, the Musalmáns only forming small isolated colonies of immigrants, whilst the mass of the population have preserved their ancient faith. The Bráhmans were returned at 109,881; Rájputs, 92,836; Ráthis, 50,767, and Thakurs, 19,122, the two forming lower classes of hill Rájputs; Giraths, cultivators, 108,716; Kanets, almost entirely confined to Kúlu, 61,141; Chamárs, 51,679; Juláhas, 28,129; Dagis, 19,742; Tarkháns, 16,286; Lohárs, 15,655; Kolis, 11,301; Játs, 11,118; Domnas, 11,095; and Jhinwárs, 10,500. In Spiti the entire population, and in the north of Láhul and a portion of Kúlu the majority of the population, consists of Tibetans, ruled over by Rájput landlords. Their religion is Buddhist, with a Hinduizing tendency, and they have all returned themselves as Hindus in the Census, with the exception of the people of Spiti (2862), who, with the exception of one solitary Hindu, all openly profess the Buddhist religion. Bráhmanism is rapidly advancing and driving out the admixture of Buddhism. Throughout the rest of the hills, the substratum consists of aborigines, with a considerable Aryan admixture, dominated by a large Aryan body of Bráhmans and Rájputs.

Social and Material Condition of the People.—The homes of the peasantry in Kángra Proper are scattered in pleasant and picturesque localities. They are not collected into villages. Every man resides upon his own farm, and builds his cottage in some selected spot, open as a rule to the sun, but sheltered from the wind. The houses are of sun-dried brick, generally of two storeys. The inmates occupy the lower floor, the upper being used as a lumber room or storehouse for

grain, except during the rains, when it is also used for sleeping. The front space before the house is kept clean and fresh, and the whole is encircled by a hedge of trees and brambles. On one side of the cottage is a shed for cows and bullocks, and another for sheep and goats. A well-to-do man also possesses a buffalo or two, which are also kept in separate tenements. The Bráhmans and Rájputs occupy the highest sites in the village area, in order that no man of low caste should be able to overlook their households. In the Kúlu Sub-division, the houses of a village are clustered in rude disorder, with little approach to the semblance of streets; but there is frequently at least one line of houses, which is parallel with another row for some short distance, the buildings at either extremity tailing off, and separating more widely from the rest of the hamlet. Some of the Kúlu villages are large, and have upwards of a hundred houses; while others are merely detached clusters of a few buildings of a Swiss style of architecture. The walls, occasionally whitewashed or plastered with mud, are formed of tiers of beams and rubble masonry, the timbers for the ceilings of the lower and upper storeys projecting, the first to receive the verandahs which extend all round the house, and a second to support the slate roof. The upper storey forms the dwelling of the household, a rough ladder leading from the lower apartments, which are applied to the stacking of grain or stalling of cattle. A paved enclosure surrounding the house is used for treading the corn, oil-pressing, rice-cleaning, etc. Nearly every house has several beehives which are let into the walls. The house of a Kúlu *zamíndár* is a somewhat picturesque object, with its gabled roofs of slate or shingle, overhanging verandahs, and massive stone wall, surrounded by the flat paved court. In the Seoráj and Wazírí Rúpi tracts, it is not uncommon to build houses three and sometimes four storeys high, but in Kúlu Proper the double storey is preferred. The interior of the houses is furnished generally in the simplest style. In Kángra Proper during Sikh rule, the agricultural classes used earthen vessels for cooking purposes, either because they were too poor to possess more costly utensils, or they were afraid to show such substantial form of comfort. At the present day, every house has a set of vessels, made of brass, copper, or other metal, according to the prevailing custom. Their bedding consists of mats of rice-straw laid on the floor of the room, and a description of quilt stuffed with pieces of old clothes, and used indifferently as a coverlet or a mattress.

The chief staples of food are maize and wheat. In the rice-growing valleys the people live to a great extent upon rice, keeping the clean rice for sale, and the chipped and broken grains for their own consumption; in the poorer uplands coarse millets form a portion of their diet. Maize is a favourite grain, and is in constant consumption from

September to May; while for the remainder of the year wheat is the common article of diet. In most parts of the hills the people can procure fish, which also forms a common article of food. Goat's flesh is eaten by the well-to-do, and on festive occasions among the poorer classes a goat is killed. All but the very poorest classes can afford to use *ghí*. In the Kángra valley, all the lower castes are consumers of country distilled spirits, and many others drink it secretly, but will not openly acknowledge its use. In Láhul and Spiti, the universal drink is a sort of hill beer known as *lugri*, of which there are several kinds of varying quality, made either from honey, rice, or wheat, and fermented by means of yeast imported from Ladákh.

The clothing of the people affords a fair criterion of their prosperity. The ordinary dress of a man of the poorer classes consists of a skull-cap, a frock reaching to the waist (*kurti*), or a similar but longer garment reaching to the knees (*cholu*), and a pair of short breeches. In addition to these, the peasant usually carries with him a blanket (*patu*), which in hot weather serves as a turban to protect his head from the sun, and in winter as a wrapper. Shoes (*juta*) are almost universally worn by all classes, except in the rains, as the wet weather spoils them. The female dress is picturesque. A Hindu woman ordinarily wears a petticoat (*ghagra*), a breast covering (*choli*), long trousers (*sothán*), and a folded mantle (*dopata*), which also forms the head-dress. For ordinary wear these garments are of the simplest colours; but on gala days, though the cut of the garments is the same, the border of the petticoat is adorned with an edging of silver or gold patterns, or the whole garment is made of streaked colours, tastefully arranged. The plain white *dopata* or mantle gives place to a pink or yellow scarf, and jewellery is largely worn. The nose-ring (*balu*) is the most common form of female ornament, and is worn by all women, with the exception of unmarried girls and widows. Except among the lower classes, the nose-ring is made of gold, and its size varies according to the taste or circumstances of the wearer. Necklaces of coloured glass or beads are also largely worn. The men, likewise, are fond of wearing gay apparel and ornaments, such as gold ear-rings, and those who can afford it display gold or silver bracelets and necklaces of alternate beads and gold.

The hill people are a good-looking race, of fair complexion, with delicate and well-formed features, especially among the Bráhmans and Rájputs. The agricultural classes are less refined in appearance, but they all possess an amiable and ingenuous expression, characteristic of the whole race. In stature they seldom exceed the middle size, and cannot compete with the stalwart Sikh population of the plains for vigour and strength. In address, they are open and good-humoured, and at the same time respectful and obedient. Their phraseology is

not perhaps so refined as that of the inhabitants of the plains, but an error in this respect always proceeds from rustic plainness, and never from intentional discourtesy. They are extremely susceptible to kindness or the reverse. To be assailed with abuse is a grievous injury not to be forgotten, and is said to lead frequently to suicide. Truthfulness, honesty, and fidelity to their employers are remarkable and honourable features in their character. An English officer, after having had charge of the District for five years, records that after making due allowance for natural bias, he could scarcely recall a single instance of a wilfully false or prevaricating witness. In their dealings among themselves, the same simple honesty is exhibited. They seldom resort to written agreements, and a man's word is accepted with as little hesitation as his bond. Like all mountaineers, they are exceedingly attached to their native hills, and few consent to take service in the plains. As soldiers, they are not remarkable for daring or impetuous bravery, but they are valuable for quiet unflinching courage, a patient endurance of fatigue, and for orderly and well-conducted habits in cantonments. With all these good qualities, the worst that can be said of these people is that they are very prone to litigation, resorting to the law courts on the most trivial occasions; they are distrustful at first of strangers, and very reserved; and lastly, they are superstitious to a degree. They firmly believe in witchcraft, and one of their most constant reproaches against our rule is that there is no punishment for witches. Every misfortune or incident at all out of the common, such as the sudden death of a young man, or the cessation of milk in a buffalo, is universally ascribed to the malevolence of some demon or spirit. They have special customs of inheritance, legitimacy, etc., of their own, which differ according to the prevailing practice in various tracts, from the comparatively orthodox Hinduized population of Kángra Proper to the half-Hindu, half-Buddhistic people of Láhul, and the Tibetan Buddhists of the remote tract of Seoráj in Kúlu. The description of the people given above is that of the inhabitants of Kángra Proper. In the remoter tracts of Kúlu, a distinct ethnical difference shows itself in the Mongolian cast of countenance. In Seoráj, where the population are all returned as Buddhists, it is impossible to draw a line between them and the Tibetan population of the Chinese Empire.

As regards marriage customs, polyandry, which is more or less common in the Láhul and Spiti tracts, is never practised in Kángra Proper. It is not uncommon, however, for a man to sell his wife to another man, and it is stated that such agreements are sometimes executed on stamped paper, and presented at the courts for registration. Polygamy is customary among nearly all castes in Kángra, although the difficulty and expense of procuring wives acts as a consider-

able check upon this practice. Polyrandry exists more or less in Láhul, and is common among all classes in Seoráj and part of the Wazírí Rúpi country; but the people are now getting ashamed of it, and the custom is disappearing.

A system of forced labour known as *begár* was in vogue in the Kángra hills until very recently, and dates back from remote antiquity. This ancient custom is thus described by Mr. G. C. Barnes, C.S., in his Settlement Report of the District, dated 1871:—'It is well known that in the hills wheeled conveyances do not exist. The imports and exports of the country, its social wants and surplus produce, are carried entirely on the backs of camels, mules, or bullocks, the property of a class which earns its subsistence by this carrying trade. For ordinary purposes, however, for the transport, for instance, of travellers' baggage, or for conveying unwieldy articles, such as timber for public purposes, human labour alone is available. By this necessity of the country a custom has grown up possessing the sanction of great antiquity, that all classes who cultivate the soil are bound to give up, as a condition of the tenure, a portion of their labour for the exigencies of Government. Under former dynasties the people were regularly drafted and sent to work out their period of servitude wherever the Government might please to appoint. So inveterate had the practice become that even artisans and other classes unconnected with the soil were obliged to devote a portion of their time to the public service. The people, by long prescription, have come to regard this obligation as one of the normal conditions of existence; and so long as it is kept within legitimate bounds they are content to render this duty with cheerfulness and promptitude. Certain classes, such as the privileged Bráhman and Rájputs uncontaminated by the plough, were always exempt, and the burden fell principally upon the strictly agricultural tribes. Even among these races there are gradations of *begár* well recognised, which, for the convenience of the people, it was necessary to define. The meanest and most onerous species of forced labour was to carry loads (*pand begár*). Those agricultural classes that do not wear the *janeo*, or thread of caste, are all liable to this obligation. A higher description of *begár* was termed *satbahak*, and consisted in carrying messages, or letters, or any parcel which could be conveyed by the hand. The fulfilment of this duty implied no degradation, and involved no great sacrifice of personal comfort; it was therefore reserved as the special province of those classes who, although occupied in agriculture, were privileged to wear the *janeo*. A third species of *begár* was to provide wood and grass for camp, and under former Governments this labour devolved upon *chamárs* and other outcast tribes, whose supposed impurity alone saved them from carrying loads. The people are very tenacious of these distinctions.'

Under orders from the Punjab Government, the *begár* system was abolished in Kángra Proper in March 1884. Arrangements have been made to supply the carriage required by travellers by private contract; and although some little inconvenience to the travelling public has necessarily resulted, there is no doubt that the abolition of *begár* does away with much hardship and oppression which the people formerly had to submit to on this account. In the more backward Kúlu Sub-division, it has not been found possible as yet to entirely abolish this system of forced labour, but considerable modifications have been made in order to reduce the hardship caused by a demand for compulsory labour to a minimum. The *begáris* are paid per stage according to a liberal scale fixed by the District authorities.

Division of the People into Town and Country.—Of the 681 towns and villages, or rather collections of homesteads grouped together in the Census, 90 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants; 187 from two to five hundred, 177 from five hundred to a thousand; 136 from one to two thousand; 43 from two to three thousand; 32 from three to five thousand; 13 from five to ten thousand; and 3 from ten to fifteen thousand. The Census Report, however, returns only six separate places over two thousand inhabitants, as containing anything like an urban population. These are—DHARMSALA, civil station and cantonment, 5322; NURPUR, 5744; KANGRA, 5387; SUJANPUR, 3431; JAWALA MUKHI, 2424; and HARIPUR, 2174.

Agriculture.—Out of a surveyed and assessed area in Kángra Proper, at the time of settlement (1865), of 1,462,363 acres, no less than 957,936 acres were returned as barren waste. Of the remainder, 413,497 acres were already under the plough, and only 90,903 acres were available for tillage. In Kúlu, Láhul, and Spiti, the area under cultivation forms only an insignificant fraction. The Punjab Administration Report for 1883-84 returns the cultivated land of the whole District at 995 square miles, or 636,800 acres, out of a total area of 9069 square miles, just one-ninth of the entire surface. The cultivated area is divided into fields which are generally unenclosed, but in some parts are surrounded with hedges or stone walls about four feet high. Around the cottage of every cultivator there is a small plot of land fenced in with shrubs and trees, and cultivated like a garden. In the Kángra valley where rice cultivation prevails, the fields descend in successive terraces one below the other, and are levelled and embanked with slight ridges to retain the water. The necessity of preserving an even surface restricts the size; and immediately under the hills, where the fall is rapid, some of the plots are smaller than a billiard-table. Towards the extremities of the valley, the slope is more gradual, and the areas expand. Artificial irrigation is supplied solely by cuts (*kúls*) from the hill streams, which

were returned in 1878 as irrigating 27 per cent. of the cultivated area of the whole District. The majority of these little canals have been constructed by the people themselves, and supply the fields only of the group of villages by whose labour they were made. Only a few water a wider area. These were for the most part constructed under the influence and with the aid of one or other of the native Rájás. The management rests entirely with the people, who receive no assistance from the State. They maintain an organized staff of officers, every village supplying its representative, who patrol the watercourses to prevent theft, to stop leakage, and to distribute the water. The large proportion of *do-fasli*, or lands yielding two harvests in the year, is a striking feature of the Kángra valley, and is estimated to amount on an average to nearly 50 per cent. of the entire cultivation, rising in certain special tracts to between 70 and 80 per cent.

The staple crops include wheat and barley for the *rábi* or spring harvest, with rice and maize for the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. The ripening of grain depends largely on the elevation. Rice is the principal crop of the Kángra valley, while maize composes the ordinary food of the upland people for six months of the year. Sugar-cane covers a large and increasing area in the neighbourhood of Kángra town. Tea cultivation, introduced experimentally by State agency shortly after the annexation of the Punjab, has taken root as an important industry in Kángra Proper, and to a less degree in Kúlu. In 1872-73, the District contained 28 plantations, carried on by private English capital, and producing a gross out-turn of 428,655 lbs. of manufactured tea, valued at £65,000. The statistics of tea cultivation in Kángra in 1881 are returned as follow:—Number of European tea-gardens, 48, with an out-turn of 576,886 lbs. of leaf; small native gardens, 1798, with an out-turn of 385,440 lbs. Total gardens, 1846, yielding an out-turn of 962,326 lbs. valued at, say, £100,000. Kángra tea is of good quality, and has a distinctly recognisable flavour. Potatoes, also introduced by Government, now constitute a considerable crop. In Láhul and Spiti, barley is the agricultural staple; but the former tract does not grow a sufficient quantity of grain for its own consumption, being largely supplied by importation from Kúlu.

The average area under the principal crops for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 142,061 acres; rice, 124,629; maize, 144,330; barley, 63,553; gram, 17,221; sugar-cane, 10,284; *maskalái* (Phaseolus mungo), 20,264; tea, 9988; cotton, 6405; and vegetables, 4265. The agricultural stock in the District in 1883 was returned as follows:—Cows and bullocks, 322,966; horses, 1907; ponies, 730; donkeys, 606; sheep and goats, 392,231; pigs, 2011; camels, 89; carts, 33; and ploughs, 77,107. The total cost of the primitive agricultural implements for a small holding worked by

a single pair of oxen is estimated at less than 10s., or, including plough oxen, £3. Buffaloes, which are chiefly valued for their milk, cost as much as £3 each; mules, £9; camels, £8; ponies from £1, 10s. to £6; and donkeys, £1. Sheep and goats have an average value of 6s. each. In a District like Kángra, where so large a proportion of the area consists of mountain-sides useless save for grazing purposes, pastoral pursuits occupy a prominent position, and rights of pasture are extensive and important. Nearly all the land is tilled by proprietors. Of a total adult male population engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits numbering 151,033, the Census of 1881 returned 109,327 as landowners, 29,315 as tenants, 1336 as joint cultivators, 6702 as agricultural labourers, and 4353 engaged in pastoral pursuits. Subdivision of land in Kángra Proper has reached its lowest point, and most of the cultivators follow some other trade or avocation as a means of livelihood.

Wages have risen largely of late years. Coolies in 1862 received at most 2 annas, or 3d. per diem; in 1882 they received from 3½ to 4½ annas, or from 5¼d. to 6¾d. Skilled labour commands from 9d. to 1s. per diem. Workmen on the tea plantations obtain, as a rule, 8s. or 9s. per month. Prices in 1873 ruled as follow:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt., rice, 13 *sers* per rupee, or 8s. 7d. per cwt. On the 1st January 1883, the prices for the same articles of produce ruled as follow:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; barley, 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s 1d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; rice, 15 *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, Communications, etc.—The staple articles of external trade include the agricultural products of the Districts,—tea (*see* previous page), rice, sugar, potatoes, spices, and drugs. The return trade, which centres on Jálandhar (Jullundur) and Hoshiárpur, comprises grain, cotton, tobacco, and European piece-goods. A considerable trans-frontier trade is carried on between Kángra and Ladákh and Yarkand, and a registration station has been established at Sultánpur in the Kúlu valley. In 1882–83, the value of the registered imports was £49,881, and of the exports, £31,291. The imports are ponies, borax, *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), raw silk, wool, etc. The exports include—cotton piece-goods, indigo, skins, opium, metals, manufactured silk, sugar, and tea. The trade is carried on principally by Láhulís, by means of pack sheep and goats. The most important routes are over the Bára Lácha and Rohtang passes. The principal centres of internal trade are Kángra, Pálampur, Sujánpur, Tíra, Jawála Mukhi, Núrpur, Gangthá, Dharmsála, and Narwana, all of which contain permanent markets at which the normal

trade of the District is carried on. Much business is also done at the annual religious fairs at Kángra and Jawála Mukhi. The Pálampur fair, established by Government in 1868 with a view to fostering commerce with Central Asia, formerly drew together a small concourse of Yarkandi merchants; but the results proving unfavourable, the fair was discontinued in 1879, when it had dwindled to a merely local gathering, and has not been held since. Of manufactures, *pashmína* cloth and shawls are exported from Núrpur and Triloknáth. Coarse woollen cloth and blankets woven by the Gaddí herdsmen, and in many towns and villages, find a ready sale in the plains to which they are exported. Soap is manufactured in the towns of Hamírpur, Dera, and Nádaun. Gold and silver jewellery and ornaments and hardware manufactures are carried on at Kángra, Sujánpur, and Tíra. Enamelling in blue on a gold or silver ground forms an important industry in Kángra town, and excellently worked gold and silver tinsel-printed cloths are a speciality of the place. The iron and slate industries have been described in a previous section of this article.

The principal roads of the District are the cart-road from Jálandhar, separating into two branches at Kángra, one of which leads to Dharmsála and the other to Pálampur and the tea plantations; and the cart-road from Pathánkot in Gurdáspur District to Kángra. This latter will probably become the principal trade route now that the railway system has been extended to Pathánkot. An unmetalled road from Pír Nigáha, on the Hoshiárpur boundary, runs to Sirkhad on the borders of Mandi territory, a distance of 41 miles. It extends through Mandi State across the Dulchí Pass to Bájaura in Kúlu, and connects the trade in the north with the main trade route of the Punjab, which it joins at Phagwára, on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway in Jálandhar District. There are also lines of unmetalled roads between Dharmsála and Hamírpur, 57 miles, and thence on to Simla *viâ* Biláspur; and from Dharmsála to Kúlu, 80 miles, passing through Mandi territory. The total length of roads in the District in 1875 amounted to 714 miles, and in 1883 to 916 miles.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily includes a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. In 1868–69, the imperial revenue from Kángra District was returned at £85,824. By 1872–73 the total had decreased to £71,434, of which sum the land-tax contributed £62,443. The only other items of importance were stamps, £4824, and excise, £2905. In 1882–83, the imperial revenue amounted to £88,938, of which £61,424 was derived from the land-tax. A small provincial and local revenue is also realized. In 1882–83, 18 magistrates exercised jurisdiction, together with 21 civil and revenue judges. The regular police force, including municipal establishments,

consisted in 1882 of 413 officers and men. Crime is rare, the character of the people generally being that of simple and honest mountaineers. The District jail at Dharmsála contained in 1882 a daily average of 101 prisoners. Education still remains in a very backward state. The principal educational institutions are the Government District school at Núrpur, with 219 pupils in 1882-83; an aided primary school at Kailang in Láhul; and the mission schools at Kángra and at Nirmand in the Seoráj tract of Kúlu. The total number of children under instruction in State-inspected schools in 1872-73 amounted to 2936, while in 1882-83 only 2506 were receiving instruction in 47 inspected schools. There are, however, a number of private uninspected schools; and the Census Report in 1881 returned 5038 boys and 94 girls as able to read and write, besides 20,865 males and 232 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into the 5 *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions of Kángra, Núrpur, Hamírpur, Dera, and Kúlu. In 1882-83, the 6 municipal towns had an aggregate revenue of £2038, or 1s. 9½d. per head of the population (23,003) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The mean temperature of Kángra town was returned by Messrs. Schlagintweit as 52·9° F. in winter, 70° in spring, 80° in summer, and 67·7° in autumn. In 1873-74, the thermometer gave a mean at Dharmsála of 70·35° in May, 73·5° in July, and 52·85° in December. The average annual rainfall amounts to 126 inches an Dharmsála, 76 at Kángra, 52 at Hamírpur, and 108 at Pálampur. The endemic diseases of the District include fever and goitre; but scurvy also prevails to a large extent. The widespread cultivation of rice, by which the whole Kángra valley is converted into a swamp, has a very prejudicial effect upon health. The total number of deaths recorded in 1882 amounted to 20,159, or 27 per thousand, of which number 11,846, or 16·21 per thousand, were due to fever. The District contains 7 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1882 to 33,828 persons, of whom 418 were in-patients. [For further information regarding Kángra, see the *Gazetteer of the Kángra District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government in 1883-84; the *Regular Settlement Report of Kángra District* between 1849 and 1852, by Mr. G. C. Barnes, C.S. (1871); the *Revised Settlement Report* between 1865 and 1872, by Mr. J. B. Lyall, C.S.; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Kángra Proper.—Tract of Kángra District, Punjab, including the valleys of KANGRA and BAXGAHAL, and lying between 31° 24′ and 32° 30′ N. lat., and between 75° 39′ and 77° 4′ E. long. It is bounded on the north by Chambá State; on the east and south-east by Kúlu *tahsíl*, and by Mandi and Biláspur States; on the south-west by H. .i-

árpur; and on the north-west by Gurdáspur District. Kángra Proper contains four out of the five *tahsíls* or Sub-divisions into which the entire District is divided, namely, Kángra, Núrpur, Dera, and Hamírpur. It consists of a number of parallel mountain ranges, offshoots of the Himálayan system, divided by longitudinal valleys, and rising at the north into the colossal chain of the Dháola Dhár, whose snowy peaks tower almost perpendicularly above the lesser hills at their base. The minor ridges have a general elevation of from 3000 to 4500 feet, but along the northern boundary the loftiest peaks reach a height of nearly 16,000 feet above sea-level. The average elevation of the cultivated tract is estimated at something less than 3000 feet. The mountains lie tossed about in the most irregular disorder, only resolvable by the eye of the geologist into their component systems. Ruined hill-forts crown the steeper crags, while every valley, slope, or gentle knoll teems with a dense population of industrious cultivators occupying tiny hamlets dotted over the face of the country. The large village of the Punjab plains is unknown in Kángra. The upper glens, which run far into the heart of the snowy range, present the most exquisite views,—their foreground filled with tillage and irrigated by tiny canals, while the background rises, through various gradations of tropical and alpine vegetation, to the cloud-like summits which close the prospect towards the north and east. The Beas (Biás), which drains the restricted Kángra valley, here presents the appearance of a mountain torrent, broken by frequent rapids, and swelling during the rainy season into a broad expanse where every rock or island is temporarily submerged. The Rávi runs through the Bangáhal glen, while the mountains above rise to the towering height of 20,000 feet. Glaciers extend far down their sides; but a few scattered villages, inhabited by aboriginal tribes, lie ensconced among the lower depressions.

The population of Kángra Proper consists chiefly of Hindus, whose native Katoch princes derive their descent from the ancient dynasty of Jálandhar (Jullundur). (*See* KANGRA DISTRICT.) Population (1881) 621,864, namely, males 326,321, and females 295,543. Hindus numbered 582,142; Muhammadans, 38,601; Sikhs, 731; Christians, 253; Jains, 133; and Pársís, 4. The Kángra valley tract contains 85 per cent. of the population of the entire District, and is thickly populated, with an average density of 224 persons per square mile, as against 52 per square mile in Kúlu Proper, and 3 and 1 per square mile respectively in the almost uninhabited outlying tracts of Lahúl and Spiti. Number of villages or hamlets, 614; number of families, 91,854. Area, 2725 square miles. Average area under cultivation in Kángra Proper during the five years 1877–1881, 906 square miles, or 579,882 acres, the principal crops being in the same order as those given in the previous article for the District as

a whole. Practically the whole available cultivable area of Kángra Proper is actually under tillage. The modern sanitarium cantonment of DHARMSALA, on the spurs of the Dháola Dhár, forms the administrative head-quarters of the entire District. But the Rájput fortress and town of KANGRA was the historical capital of the tract; and the shrine of JAWALA MUKHI, built over an inflammable spring, still draws together large numbers of pilgrims. Total revenue of Kángra Proper, £56,302. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, with a Judicial Assistant and 2 Assistant Commissioners, 4 *tahsíldárs*, 2 *munsifs*, and 4 honorary magistrates. These officers preside over 14 civil and 12 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 12; strength of regular police, 206 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 750. For further particulars, see the preceding article, which treats of Kángra District as a whole.

Kángra.—*Tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 31° 49′ 30″ and 32° 23′ 30″ N. lat., and between 76° 10′ and 76° 43′ E. long., and forming a part of Kángra Proper. Area, 1065 square miles. Population in 1868, 211,165; in 1881, 218,588, namely, males 114,801, and females 103,787. Hindus number 207,252; Muhammadans, 10,976; Sikhs, 112; Christians, 244, and Pársís, 4. Number of villages or hamlets, 232; houses, 32,698; number of families, 41,266. The average area under cultivation for the five years 1877–1881 was 175,719, the area under the principal crops being—rice, 71,426 acres; wheat, 50,521; Indian corn, 11,915; barley, 11,589; and sugar-cane, 3390 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £23,503. The administrative staff consists of a Deputy Commissioner, Judicial Assistant, 2 Assistant Commissioners, a *tahsíldár*, and 2 *munsifs*. These officers preside over 7 civil and 5 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; strength of regular police, 59 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 195.

Kángra.—Town and municipality of Kángra District, Punjab; formerly the capital of a considerable Katoch State. Lat. 32° 5′ 14″ N., long. 76° 17′ 46″ E. The town, anciently known as Nagarkot, occupies both slopes of a hill, overlooking the Bángangá torrent. The older portion covers the southern declivity, while the suburb of Bháwan and the famous temple of Devi lie upon the northern slope. The fort, to which alone in strictness the name of Kángra belongs, crowns a precipitous rock, rising sheer above the Bángangá, and dominating the whole surrounding valley, of which from time immemorial it has formed the key. Once considered impregnable, it is open to attack from so many neighbouring eminences as to offer little opportunity of defence against modern artillery. The Katoch princes ruled the Kángra valley from prehistoric times till the advent of the British. During the Mughal period, the town apparently possessed a far larger population than at the present

day; and it was held by the last Muhammadan governor long after he had become completely isolated from the remainder of the Delhi Empire. (*See* KANGRA DISTRICT.) The temple of Devi, twice plundered by the Musalmáns, ranks among the oldest and most wealthy shrines in India. After the British annexation, the District head-quarters were originally fixed at Kángra; but since their removal to Dharmsála in 1855 the town has rapidly sunk into insignificance. Population in 1868, 6448; in 1881, 5387. Classified according to religion, the population in the latter year comprised—Hindus, 4454; Muhammadans, 872; Sikhs, 9; and 'others,' 52. Number of houses, 928. Municipal income (1882), £472, or an average of 1s. 9d. per head. The town is the centre of local trade, but the manufacture of country cloth which was formerly carried on has become almost extinct. Kángra is noted for its jewellery work, and its excellent blue enamel. The public buildings consist of a circuit-house, *tahsíli*, police station, charitable dispensary, post-office, school-house, staging bungalow, *sarái*. The fort is garrisoned by a detachment of the Gúrkha regiment stationed at Dhamsála, under the command of a European officer. Kángra is a station of the Church Missionary Society, one of whose missionaries generally resides here.

Kangundi.—*Zamíndári* or estate in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. The area is 213 square miles. Population (1881) 45,184, namely, 22,475 males and 22,709 females, dwelling in 8682 houses, scattered through 321 villages. Hindus numbered 43,739; Muhammadans, 1437; and Christians, 8. The estate lies in the south-west extremity of the District; bounded on the north-west by Mysore State, north-east by Palmaner *táluk*, south and south-east by Salem District; greatest length, 25 miles; greatest breadth, 18 miles. The *zamíndár* divides his country into three parts—the Bailu Síma or open country of the north-west, the Chettu Síma or wooded country of the centre, and the Kanama Kinda Síma or below-*ghát* country of the south-east.

The estate has been long in the possession of the present *zamíndár's* family, and is probably a creation of the Vijayanagar dynasty, whose princes settled in this neighbourhood. Haidar Alí threw one of the subsequent *pálegárs* into jail at Seringapatam; and Tipú shortly after placed a garrison in the town of Kangundi. The Company restored the rightful heirs in 1794.

Of the total area, 8000 acres are reported to be under wet-crop cultivation, and 32,000 acres under dry; 30,000 acres are cultivable waste, and 150,000 uncultivable. The land system is for the *zamíndár* to lease out his villages to one or more persons jointly for short terms of years, and the lessees make their own terms with the *ráyats*, varying the demand from year to year. The well-to-do villagers are generally the lessees, and care little for the interests of the poorer *ráyats*. The result

is a backward condition among the mass of the people. Irrigation is carried on by tanks, which are, as a rule, large and excellently built. Wells are infrequent, and spring channels unknown. The soil is a gravelly loam of inferior quality. Lime and iron are found, but the iron is not worked. There is said to be 100 square miles of auriferous country, but nothing has been done to explore the ground, although gold-mining works are carried on near the border. Jaggery or raw sugar is made, but the general occupation is agriculture. Kangundi cattle were once famous. The estate is in railway communication with the other parts of the Presidency through the station, situated at Kuppam, of the Bangalore branch of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Kuppam is the only place in the estate with over 2000 inhabitants. Its population is 2874, that of Kangundi town being 703. The *peshkash* (revenue) to Government is £2300 per annum. The general elevation of the country is about 2000 feet above sea-level. The villages are nearly all stockaded, and the whole tract is more primitive in its aspect than the surrounding District.

Kangundi.—Town in Kangundi *zamíndári*, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 703; number of houses, 143 The village, once the chief place in the neighbourhood, is now depopulated by fever, cholera, and the effects of the famine of 1876–78. It lies at the base of a precipitous hill crowned with the ruins of a fort, which must have been a place of great strength, much care having been expended in the fortifications. The hill is ascended by a flight of steps. The *zamíndár's* palace is an imposing pile of buildings.

Kan-gyí-daung. — Head-quarters town of Thí-kwin township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 54′ 30″ N., long. 64° 58′ E., on the right bank of the Dagá river, about 15 miles from its junction with the Bassein. Population (1876) 2351; (1881) 2081, chiefly engaged in agriculture; number of houses, 295. Local revenue, £100; excise other than *tari*, £281. Court-house and police station.

Kanhán.—River of the Central Provinces; rising in lat. 21° 52′ N., long. 78° 39′ E., in the Sátpura Hills, Chhindwárá District; winds in a south-easterly direction through a series of small hills in the Ghargajgarh forests, four miles south of the ruined fort of Deogarh; receives the Jám below Lodhíkherá; and joins the Pench just above Kamthi, where a magnificent stone bridge spans the river, constructed at a cost of £80,000. The united stream then flows on until it falls into the Waingangá (lat. 21° 5′ N., long. 79° 40′ E.) below Bhandára, about 140 miles from the source of the Kanhán

Kanhargáon.—A small estate or *zamíndári* in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; consisting of a single village, with an area of 1404 acres. Around the village site are some very fine trees,—mango, *pípal*,

tamarind, and date-palm,—including a magnificent banyan tree of great age, and covering a considerable area.

Kanherí.—A barren hill in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, about 18 miles south-east of Bhandárá town; rising about 300 feet above the plain. Yields good building stone, besides hones, and white soft stone for pottery.

Kanigiri.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 1′ to 15° 32′ N., long. 79° 9′ to 79° 44′ E. Area, 726 square miles. Population (1881) 108,761, namely, 55,422 males and 53,339 females, dwelling in 188 villages, containing 20,561 houses. Hindus numbered 98,804; Muhammadans, 5573; and Christians, 4384. The most barren and unfruitful *táluk* in Nellore. It is intersected by two streams, the Maneru and the Paleru; but little pure water is to be had. Herds of goats browse over a rocky plain covered with thin scrub jungle. Palmyra trees grow among the sandhills that dot the north-west corner over a considerable area; and drunkenness caused by the palmyra toddy is prevalent among all classes. In 1883, there were in the *táluk* 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 12; regular police, 78 men; village watch (*chaukídárs*), 19. Land revenue, £4891.

Kanigiri.—Town and fort in Kanigiri *táluk* of Nellore District, Madras. Lat. 15° 23′ N., long. 79° 32′ E. Population (1881) 2869, namely, 1415 males and 1454 females, dwelling in 635 houses. Hindus numbered 2302; Muhammadans, 482; and Christians, 85. In the neighbourhood is a remarkable hill, which forms a striking feature in the landscape for many miles round. On its summit, about 1500 feet above sea-level, is a table-land of about a square mile, where tradition says a town once stood. The hill was fortified, and was formerly a place of great strength. The remains of some of the batteries still exist. About the 10th century this part of the country was taken by Kaketa Rudrudu of the Gajapathi family, who had the seat of their government at Cuttack. His son built the town of Kanigiri, and fortified the hill. About the 16th century it was captured by Krishna Ráya. It played a conspicuous part in local feuds till it was taken, and the buildings destroyed by Haidar Alí.

Kanjarapalli ('*Caguarapalli*' of Bartolomeo).—Town in Changuacheri District, Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 4′ 30″ N., long. 76° 35′ 20″ E. Population about 2000. A trading town on the main road from Kotayam to Madura, through Pirmaid and Gúdalúr. Situated at the foot of the *ghát* or pass, and inhabited chiefly by Muhammadan traders. Fra Paolino di S. Bartolomeo mentions it specially as having dealings across the *ghát* with Madura.

Kanjarda.—Petty State of the Gohilwár Sub-division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, Kanjarda. Population

(1881) 297. Situated at the foot of the Bhádwo hill, about eight miles to the south-west of Pálitána. The revenue in 1876 was estimated at £250; tribute of £12, 16s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kanjiá.—Ancient town in a tract of same name, on the northern frontier of Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces. Lat. 24° 23′ 30″ N., long. 78° 15′ E. Its first recorded ruler was a Bundela chief named Debi Singh, whose son Sháhjí built the fort which stands on a hill to the south of the town. It is square, with a tower at each corner, and encloses about ■ acres, nearly covered with ruined buildings. In 1726, Sháhjí's descendant, Vikramáditya, was expelled by Hasan-ullá Khán, Nawáb of Kurwái, and took refuge at Piprási, a small village in the extreme north of the Kanjiá tract, where his descendant, Amrit Singh, was living in 1870 on a rent-free estate of five villages In 1758, the Peshwá's army drove out the Nawáb of Kurwái, and the Peshwá conferred the tract on one of his officers, named Khandaráo Trimbak. His successor, Rámchándra Ballál (otherwise Rám Bhárí), on the cession of Ságar (Saugor) by the Peshwá in 1818, gave up Kanjiá and Malhárgarh, a neighbouring tract, receiving in lieu thereof the estate of Itáwá. In the same year the British made over Kanjiá to Sindhia, who held it until the exchange of territory in 1860, when it was incorporated with Ságar District. In 1857, a party of Bundelas from the adjoining Native States turned out Sindhia's officer, and forcibly set up Amrit Singh as their ruler. After a few days he escaped from the unwelcome dignity; but the Bundelas plundered the place, and only decamped eight months later on hearing of the approach of Sir Hugh Rose. The tract suffered under native rule from fiscal oppression, but has improved since the new settlement of the land revenue A market is held every Tuesday. Police outpost station.

Kanjikovil.—Town in Erod *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 22′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 5300; (1881) 4430, occupying 1018 houses Hindus number 4393; Muhammadans, 3; and Christians, 34.

Kánkánhalli.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Area, 401 square miles, of which 109 are cultivated. Population (1871) 73,515; (1881) 56,201, or 27,987 males and 28,214 females. Classified according to religion, there were 52,700 Hindus, 2943 Muhammadans, and 558 Christians. The southern half of the *táluk* is a succession of hills and jungle; castor-oil plant, *ragi*, and gram form the principal cultivation of the open parts. Revenue (1882–83), £7685. Among special products are tamarinds and cocoa-nuts. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court; police stations (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 71 men.

Kánkánhalli.—Town in Bangalore District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lies on the right bank of the Arkavati river, 36 miles south of

Bangalore city. Lat. 12° 32′ 50″ N., long. 77° 27′ 30″ E. Population (1871) 4671; (1881) 4360, of whom 3939 are Hindus and 41 Muhammadans. Suggested by Dr. Burnell to be identical with the Konkanapur mentioned by Hiuen Tsiang, the Chinese pilgrim of the 7th century. There is a fort still in existence, built by a local chief, inside which stands an ancient temple of Ranganátha. The town was twice devastated by Tipú Sultán, to prevent its being of use to the British army. A weekly fair is held on Thursdays, attended by 2000 persons; and in the neighbourhood are many cocoa-nut groves. Head-quarters of the Kánkánhalli *táluk*.

Kánker.—A feudatory chiefship in the south of Ráipur District, Central Provinces; lying north of the State of Bastar. Population (1881) 63,610, of whom nearly two-thirds are Gonds, residing in 436 villages and 16,142 houses, on an area of 639 square miles. The country is hilly, and ruined by *dáhya* or nomadic cultivation, except in the eastern portion along the valley of the Mahánadi, where stretch some fertile plains. Rice, *kutki*, *kodo*, lac, gum, etc., constitute the chief products. Rájá Narhar Deo, the chief, belongs to a very old Rájput family; and according to tradition, his ancestors were raised to the throne by a vote of the people. When the Haihai Bansí line ruled in Chhattísgarh, Kánker occupied a dignified position among the feudatory dependencies, such as Bastar, Sambalpur, etc.; and the Rájás held with it the valuable Khálsa *parganá* of Dhamtarí. The total revenue of the estate in 1868 was £996, of which £621 was derived from the land. In 1882, the gross revenue was estimated at £1500.

Kankhal.—Town in Saháranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 55′ 45″ N., long. 78° 11′ E. Lies on the west bank of the Ganges; distant from Saháranpur town 38 miles east, from Rúrkí (Roorkee) 16 miles north-east, from Hardwár 1 mile south. The population in 1881 amounted to 5838, chiefly Bráhman priests attached to the Hardwár temple, who intermarry only with Bráhmans of the neighbouring town of Jawálapur. Hindus numbered 5502; Muhammadans, 284; Jains, 41; and 'others,' 11. Area of town site, 63 acres. The temple of Daksheswara, a synonym of Siva, stands to the south of the town, and marks the spot where, according to the *Puránas*, Mahádeo spoilt the sacrifice of Daksha, and Sati, daughter of Daksha and wife of Siva, immolated herself in the fire. Many of the houses here are very substantially built, and have their walls decorated with fantastic paintings. The river bank is lined with shady and tastefully-laid-out gardens, which give the town a picturesque appearance. Kankhal forms part of the Hardwár Municipal Union; police outpost, and village school. For municipal statistics see HARDWAR.

Kánkiná.—Market village in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated

on the left bank of the Tístá river. Exports of jute, tobacco, and sugar.

Kankraoli.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Situated 40 miles north of Udaipur city, in lat. 25° 2′ 45″ N., long. 73° 52′ E. On the southern bank of the Ráj Samand lake is a temple, the shrine of Dwarka Disha, one of the seven forms of Krishna. The statue of Dwárkanáth is asserted to be the identical image that received the adoration of Amrika, a prince of the Solar race, who lived in the silver age.

Kánkrej (or *Tara*).—A collection of petty states under the Pálanpur Agency, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Area, 520 square miles. Population (1872) 37,771; (1881) 45,164. Bounded on the north by Pálanpur; on the east by a sub-division of Baroda (Gáekwár's) territory; on the south by Rádhanpur State; and on the west by the Pálanpur estates of Terwára and Diodár. Total revenue, £4347; tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £513.

Kánkrej is a flat, open, and fairly-wooded country, situated on both sides of the Banás river. The soil is of two sorts—sandy and black—and produces the usual rainy-weather crops, when irrigated, it yields two harvests. The staples are wheat and millet. Water is found in wells from 30 to 40 feet below the surface. As in the neighbouring State of Pálanpur, the climate is dry and hot, and the prevailing disease is fever.

The first connection of the British Government with the states of Kánkrej dates from the formation of the Mahi Kántha Agency in 1819-20. It was included in the Mahi Kántha Agency till 1844, when, on account of its nearness to Pálanpur, it was transferred to the Pálanpur Agency. Kánkrej comprises twenty-six different estates, the chief of which are Thará, Un, and Wára, most of them held by Rájputs who have intermarried with lower caste Kolí women. The largest and most important estate is Thará, whose chiefs are Wághelá Kolis by caste, who, by refusing to eat with their brethren, have been allowed to intermarry with Rájput houses, and are now generally admitted as belonging to the Rájput tribe.

The principal village in Kánkrej is Thará, five miles north of which is Kákar, the ancient capital of the State, with some ruined temples.

Kánksiáli. — Petty State in the Hálár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency, situated on the Rájkot-Gondal road, eight miles south of Rájkot town; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate tribute-payers. Area, 76 square miles. Population (1881) 236. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £120; tribute of £8, 8s. is paid to the British Government, and £2, 14s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kánksiáli (*Coxeali*).—Distributary of the Jamuná river, Khulná District, Bengal. Favourite night anchorage on the boat route between Calcutta and the Eastern Bengal Districts.

Kankuppa.—*Táluk* in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State, Southern India, with its head-quarters at Jagalúr town. Area, 370 square miles, of which 147 are cultivated. Population (1871) 40,311; (1881) 28,437, namely, 14,377 males and 14,060 females. Classified according to religion, there were 27,492 Hindus, 862 Muhammadans, 81 Jains, and 2 Christians. Land revenue (1881-82), exclusive of water rates, £4030. Crops—rice, sugar-cane, cotton, and white *jolá*. There are no water-courses; the soils are red, sandy, and black. The road between Chitaldrúg and Ujani runs through the village of Kankuppa.

Kannúr (*Kánnanúr*).—Town in Malabár District, Madras Presidency.—*See* CANNANORE.

Kanor.—Town in the Native State of Udaipur, Rájputána. Lat. 24° 25′ N., long. 74° 4′ 30″ E. Situated 45 miles east of the capital, and the residence of a first-class noble of the State, who owns 84 villages. The town gives its name to his estate.

Kanora.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás, in Rewá Kántha, Gujarát (Guzerát), Bombay Presidency. Area, $3\frac{3}{4}$ square miles. There are seven villages and eight shareholders. The estate lies south of Sihora. It is much cut up by ravines, but has a good river frontage to the Mahi. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £270; tribute of £160 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Kánpur Iswaria.—Petty State in the Hálár Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of an area of 3 square miles, with 2 villages, Kánpur and Iswaria, owned by four separate holders. Population (1881) 1369. Kánpur is about 22 miles south-east of Rájkot, and Iswaria three miles west of Kánpur. The revenue in 1881 was estimated at £500; tribute is paid of £23 to the British Government, and £11, 14s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Kánsat.—Village in Maldah District, Bengal; situated on the Ganges. Noted for its fair held in February or March, which lasts for two days, and was formerly attended by from 8000 to 10,000 Hindus, who come for the purpose of bathing in the Ganges. The fair is now in a declining state owing to the recession of the main stream of the Ganges, and the drying up of the old bathing-place. In 1868, cholera broke out severely at this gathering, and was thence widely disseminated throughout the District.

Kánsbáns (or *Káinsbáns*).—River in Balasor District, Orissa; so called from a jungle of *káins* or *káns* grass and bamboos, amid which it rises in *kilá* Ambohatá. The stream runs in a south-easterly direction, at first almost parallel with the Nílgirí Hills, and receives from them a number of nameless drainage streams on its northern or left bank. At

Bírpárá it bifurcates, the northern branch retaining its original name, and entering the sea in lat. 21° 12' 25" N., and long. 86° 52' 10" E. LAICHANPUR port is situated near the mouth of the river. The southern branch, the Gammái, on which is the port of [illegible], falls into the Bay of Bengal six miles south of the Kánsbáns.

Kánt.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 49' 10" E., long. 79° 49' 45" E., situated on the road from Sháhjahánpur to Jalálábád, 9 miles south of the former town. The population, which in 1872 numbered 5006, had by 1881 decreased to 4681, consisting of 2788 Hindus and 1893 Muhammadans. Area of town site, 131 acres. The town contains a police station, post-office, *sarái* or native inn, and two encamping grounds. There are many old native houses which attest the former importance of Kánt, which was the chief place in this part of the country before the rise of the city of Sháhjahánpur. A *khera* or mound close to the village is said to have been the site of the old fort and offices. Bi-weekly markets are held on Sundays and Thursdays.

Kántái.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated about 8 miles from Muzaffarpur town, on the road to Motihári. Lat. 26° [illegible] N., long. 85° 20' 30" E. Large indigo factory, and remains of [illegible] factory. Bi-weekly market.

Kantal.—Mountain Pass, Kashmír, Punjab, Northern India.—*See* BUL TUL.

Kántha.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated 18 miles east of Unao town. Said to have been founded [illegible] years ago by a [illegible] who named the place after himself. Surrounded by numerous groves of mango and *mahuá* trees. In the days of native rule, there was a fortress here, the head-quarters of a *tahsíldár*. Population (1881) 3694, namely, 3530 Hindus and 164 Muhammadans. Two Hindu temples, one mosque, Government school; two small fairs—one in the month of Jaisthá, attended by about 5000, and another in Kártik, attended by 2000 people.

Kan-tha.—River in British Burma.—*See* [illegible].

Kanthalpára.—Village in the Twenty-four Parganas District, Bengal. Noted as a place of Sanskrit learning. A fair is held here during the *Ras-jatra* of Madan Gopál, the local deity, established about thirty-five years ago by the late Maharájá of Nadiyá, Srís Chandra Rái Bahádur.

Kanthária (*Kuntharia*).—Petty State in the [illegible] Division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Area, [illegible] square miles, with [illegible] villages, held by five separate proprietors, paying a tribute of £[illegible] to the British Government, and £[illegible] to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Estimated revenue in 1881, £[illegible]. The proprietors [illegible] are [illegible] Rájputs by caste.

Kánthi.—Sub-division and town, Midnapur District, Bengal.—*See* CONTAI.

Kantilo.—Town in Khandpárá State, Orissa; situated on the south or right bank of the Mahánadi. Lat. 20° 21′ 46″ N., long. 85° 14′ 20″ E. One of the largest towns in the Orissa Tributary States, and a considerable seat of trade, to which merchants from Cuttack bring salt, spices, etc., to exchange for cotton, wheat, oil-seeds, clarified butter, etc. from Sambalpur. Population (1872), Hindus, 5386; Muhammadans, 8; 'others,' 140; total, 5534, namely, 2675 males and 2859 females, residing in 1113 houses. At the Census of 1881, the population had fallen below 5000, and the place is no longer returned separately in the Bengal Census Report.

Kantúr.—Town in Bara Banki District, Oudh; situated 20 miles north-east of Bara Banki town. Population (1872) 3250; (1881) 4029, namely, 2105 Hindus and 1924 Muhammadans. The chief inhabitants are Musalmáns, holding small rent-free grants. The houses are mainly of masonry, and the town is healthy and well situated on an eminence.

Kanu.—Village and railway station in Bardwán District, Bengal; 75 miles from Calcutta. An important junction on the East Indian Railway.

Kánum (*Kánam*).—Town in Bashahr State, Punjab, the principal place in the Sub-division of Kunáwár. Lat. 31° 40′ N., long. 78° 30′ E.; situated in a mountain glen, near the valley of the Sutlej (Satlaj), about 9300 feet above sea-level. Thornton states that the houses rise above one another in tiers, the roof of each tier forming the roadway for the next. Contains a celebrated Buddhist temple, with a large Tibetan library. Kánum ranks as the ecclesiastical capital of Kunáwár, its Grand Láma being the supreme pontiff of the Sub-division, but receiving his ratification from the Grand Láma of Ladákh. Csoma de Koros, the Hungarian traveller, lived here for some years during the course of his investigations into the Tibetan language and religion. Celebrated for its manufacture of a good description of blankets known as *bijrál*.

Kanyagiri.—*Táluk* in Nellore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KANIGIRI.

Kanyagiri (*Kanigiri*).—Fort in Nellore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* KANIGIRI.

Kanzam.—Pass in Kángra District, Punjab, over the Kanzam range, between Spiti and Láhul. Lat. 32° 23′ 30″ N., long. 77° 40′ 45″ E.; elevation, about 15,000 feet. An easy road, closed for some months in winter by snow, opens into the valley of the Chandra. From the summit of the pass a magnificent view is obtained of immense glaciers and snowy peaks upwards of 20,000 feet in height, rising abruptly from the opposite bank of the Chandra river.

Káorápukur.—*Khál*, or watercourse, in the Twenty-four Parganás District, Bengal, connecting Tolly's Canal, below the village of Tollyganj, with the Magrá *khál*. Lat. 22° 17′ to 22° 28′ 45″ N., long. 88° 23′ to 88° 23′ 30″ E. It is 23 miles in length, but not navigable all the year round throughout its entire course.

Kapadwanj.—Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by Baroda territory and Mahi Kántha; east by Bálásinor State; south by Thásra, Nariád, and Mehmadábád Subdivisions of Kaira District; and west by Ahmadábád District. The Sub-division is in shape an oblong, fifteen miles long and thirty miles broad. Area, 280 square miles. Population (1872) 86,742; (1881) 93,024, of whom 48,269 were males and 44,755 females; towns and villages, 86; occupied houses, 21,120; unoccupied, 5812; increase of population since 1872, 6282. Hindus numbered 82,360; Muhammadans, 9392; 'others,' 1272.

Towards the south and west, Kapadwanj Sub-division is a rich and well-cultivated plain clothed with trees. The Mohar and the Vátrak flow through the Sub-division, but these streams are of little service for irrigation, being highly charged with soda. The water-supply generally is scanty; in 1876, the number of wells was only 1042; 11 square miles are occupied by the lands of *mehwás* or alienated villages. For the remaining area the settlement introduced in 1863–64 continues in force till 1891–92. Of the total settled area of 172,160 acres, 128,178 are occupied land; 19,696 acres are cultivable waste; and 3624 acres are under grass. About 63,733 acres are actually under tillage. The settlement in 1863–64 showed 13,383 holdings with an average area of 9½ acres to each holding. The average rent to be paid by each holder was settled at £1, 13s. 10d. The incidence of the land-tax was 4s. 5d. per head of the population. *Bájra*, rice, *jodr*, and maize are the staple crops.

In 1882–83, the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police stations (*thánás*), 1; regular police, 67 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 53. Land revenue, £15,812.

Kapadwanj.—Chief town and municipality of the Kapadwanj Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. A fortified town, situated in lat. 23° 1′ N., and long. 73° 7′ 30″ E. Population (1872) 13,982; (1881) 14,442, namely, 6857 males and 7585 females. Hindus numbered 8746; Muhammadans, 4973; Jains, 720; and Pársís, 3. Area of town site, 146 acres. Municipal income (1882–83), £756; incidence of taxation per head of population, 10½d.; municipal expenditure, £874. Precious stones, such as agate and onyx, are found in large quantities in the bed of the Mohar, a rocky stream half a mile north of the town. Manufactures are soap, glass, and leather butter-jars. The most important articles of trade are grain and opium from

Central India, and tobacco from Gujarát (Guzerát). Besides supplying a considerable local demand, Kapadwanj goods are exported to the Pánch Maháls, Bálásinor territory, and Central India. Near the walls are the ruins of an ancient town. The neighbourhood was the scene of some hard-fought battles during the Maráthá ascendency. It was exchanged for Bijápur in 1817. Kapadwanj derives its importance as lying on one of the main trade routes between Central India and the coast. The principal objects of interest in the town are a fine reservoir with a well in the centre, and an arch in the Chálukya (1000–1300) style of architecture. A sacred pool, with healing qualities attributed to it by tradition, is inside the walls. South of the pool is an underground temple to Mahádeo, never properly explored. Of modern buildings, that of most note is a Jain temple; the interior is richly ornamented with marble pillars, and a marble pavement inlaid with delicacy and taste. Sub-judge's court, dispensary, and post-office. In 1878, there were 3 Government schools, with an average attendance of 366 pupils.

Kápargádi.—Range of hills in Singbhúm District, Bengal; rising abruptly from the plain to the Kápargádi peak, 1398 feet above sea-level, from whence the range runs in a south-easterly direction, until it culminates in the Tuiligár Hill, 2492 feet high, lat. 22° 42′ 30″ N., long. 86° 11′ 30″ E. Thence the ridge gradually widens out, and forms the northern limit of the Meghásani range in the Orissa Tributary State of Morbhanj. The rocks of the Kápargádi range are all of a schistose character, running into gneiss. On the north of the ridge are copper-bearing rocks, extending for a distance of 80 miles. These copper beds were formerly worked by European companies, but on too expensive a scale to yield a profit. The enterprise was abandoned in 1864, and the company's buildings and machinery were seized by the Rájá of Dálbhúm for the mining rent of the ground. It has not since been resumed.

Kápila.—Ancient city, supposed by General Cunningham to have been where the village of Nagar-Khas in Gorakhpur District now stands. Gautama Buddha (Sákya Muni) is said to have been born here (598 B.C.).

Kapileswarapuram. — Town in Ramáchandrapuram *táluk* of Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 16° 44′ N., long. 81° 57′ 20″ E. Population (1871) 5463; (1881) 5067, namely, 2393 males and 2674 females, occupying 882 houses. Hindus numbered 5026, and Muhammadans 41. Ferry across the Godávari, 21 miles above Yanam in French territory.

Kapili (*Kopili*).—River in the Province of Assam, rising in the Jaintia Hills in lat. 25° 5′ N., and long. 92° 31′ E., and flowing northwards into Nowgong (Naugáon) District. For a long distance it forms

the boundary between the Jaintia and the North Cachar Hills, and it ultimately falls into the Kalang, an offshoot of the Brahmaputra at Jági. Lat. 26° 13′ N., long. 92° 35′ E. Its chief tributaries are the Diying and the JAMUNA, which join it on its right bank from North Cachar and the Nágá Hills. The banks are rocky throughout. The Kapili is navigable in the plains by boats of 4 tons burthen during the greater part of the year, but shortly before its exit from the hills its course is interrupted by a rocky barrier over which the stream is precipitated in a fine waterfall. This renders its upper course impassable by boats. A hot spring exists a few miles above the falls.

Kapilmuni.—Village in Khulná District, Bengal; situated on the bank of the Kabadak river, 5 or 6 miles below Tálá. Lat. 22° 41′ 30″ N., long. 89° 21′ E. It has a permanent *bázár* and a bi-weekly market, but is not a place of much trade. The village takes its name from a Hindu sage (*muni*) named Kapila, not the great Kapila who, according to Hindu mythology, destroyed the sons of King Ságar, but a celebrated devotee, who established his abode here in ancient times, and set up the idol Kapileswarí, which is still worshipped. A grand fair (*melá*) is annually held here in honour of the goddess in March, on the day of the *Baruní* bathing festival. According to local belief, the Kabadak at this place acquires for that day the sanctifying influences of Ganges water—a result due to the virtues of Kapilmuni. The tomb of a Muhammadan saint, Jafar Alí, has also become a place of pilgrimage for devout Musalmáns. The building is in charge of Muhammadan *fakírs*, who hold lands rent-free for its maintenance.

Kapini (*Kabbani*, *Kapila*).—Tributary of the Káverí (Cauvery) river, Southern India; rises in the Western Gháts, and, after flowing in an easterly direction across the middle of Mysore District, falls into the Káverí near Narsipur. The confluence is a spot of great sanctity. The Kapini has two tributaries from the south, the Nugu and the Gundal. A perennial river, averaging from 150 to 200 yards in width; and during the dry season bringing down a volume of water not less than that of the Káveri. Scarcely used for purposes of irrigation.

Kapúrthala.—Native State under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 9′ and 31° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 75° 3′ 15″ and 75° 38′ 30″ E. long. Area, 620 square miles. Population (1881) 252,617; average density of population, 420 persons per square mile.

The ancestors of the chief of Kapúrthala at one time held possessions both in the cis- and trans-Sutlej, and also in the Bári Doáb. In the latter lies the village of Ahlu, whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Ahluwália. The scattered possessions in the Barí Doáb were gained by the sword in 1780, and were the first acquisitions

made by Sardár Jassa Singh, the founder of the family. Of the cis-Sutlej possessions, some were conquered by Sardár Jassa Singh, and others were granted to him by Mahárájá Ranjít Singh prior to September 1808.

By a treaty made in 1809, the Sardár of Kapúrthala pledged himself to furnish supplies to British troops moving through or cantoned in his cis-Sutlej territory; and by declaration in 1809 he was bound to join the British standard with his followers during war. In 1826, the Sardár, Fateh Singh, fled to the cis-Sutlej States for the protection of the British Government against the aggressions of the Mahárájá Ranjít Singh. This was accorded; but in the first Sikh war the Kapúrthala troops fought against the British at Alíwál, and, in consequence of these hostilities and of the failure of the chief, Sardár Nihal Singh, son of Sardár Fateh Singh, to furnish supplies from his cis-Sutlej estates to the British army, these estates were confiscated. When the Jálandhar (Jullundur) Doáb came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846, the trans-Sutlej estates were maintained in the independent possession of the Ahluwália chieftain, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash of the service engagements by which he had previously been bound to the Government of Ranjít Singh. The Barí Doáb estates have been released to the head of the house in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities.

In 1849, Sardár Nihal Singh was created a Rájá. He died in September 1852, and was succeeded by his son, Randhír Singh. During the Mutiny in 1857, the forces of Randhír Singh, who never hesitated or wavered in his loyalty, strengthened our hold upon the *Jálandhar Doáb*; and afterwards, in 1858, the chief led a contingent to Oudh, which did good service in the field. He was well rewarded; and among other concessions obtained the grant in perpetuity of the estates of Baundi, Bithauli, and Akona in Oudh, which yield at present a gross annual revenue of about £80,000. In these estates the Rájá exercises no sovereign powers, though in Oudh he is, to mark his superiority over the ordinary *tálukdárs*, to be addressed as Rájá-i-Rájágan. This title was made applicable to the Rájá in Oudh only, and not in the Punjab. Rájá Randhír Singh died at Aden on his way to England in 1870, and was succeeded by his son, Kharrak Singh. The present Rájá, Jagatjit Singh, son of Rájá Kharrak Singh, is a minor, who succeeded in September 1877. The chiefs of Kapúrthala are Sikhs of the Kalál tribe. The area of the Punjab State is 620 square miles; that of the Oudh estates, 700 square miles. The population of the estates in 1881 amounted to 249,301 in Oudh, and 252,617 in the Punjab.

The Kapúrthala State, with its area of 620 square miles, contains 4 towns and 613 villages; 37,633 houses; and 62,047 families. Total

population (1881) 252,617, namely, males 138,638, and females 113,979; average density of population, 407 persons per square mile; persons per village, 409; inmates per house, 6·7. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Muhammadans, 142,174; Hindus, 82,900; Sikhs, 26,493; Jains, 214; Christians, 35; and Buddhist, 1.

The revenue of the State is about £100,000, but is subject to a charge of £13,100, payable to the British Government as commutation for military services, and £6000 per annum to Sardárs Bikrama Singh and Suchet Singh, brothers of Rájá Randhír Singh. The Oudh estates are estimated to yield about £80,000 in addition. The military forces consist of 4 fort guns, 9 field guns, 186 cavalry, 926 infantry, and 303 police. The principal products of the State are sugar-cane, cotton, wheat, maize, and tobacco. The Rájá has the right of adoption, and is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. The three principal towns in the State are KAPURTHALA, the capital, with a population of 15,237; PHAGWARA, population 10,627; and SULTANPUR, population 8217.

Kapúrthala.—Chief town of Kapúrthala State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 23′ N., and long. 75° 25′ E., 8 miles from the left bank of the river Beas (Biás). Population in 1881, 15,237, namely, Muhammadans, 8926; Hindus, 5351; Sikhs, 884; Jains, 42; and 'others,' 34. Number of houses, 3081. The town is connected by metalled roads with Jálandhar, 11 miles distant, with the Kartárpur Station of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, 7½ miles distant, and with Sultánpur, 16 miles distant. Kapúrthala has been the capital of the Ahluwália chiefs since its conquest by Sardár Jassa Singh in 1780.

Kara.—Town in Siráthu *tahsíl*, Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* KARRA.

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—District in the Province of Sind, Bombay Presidency; lies between 23° 34′ and 26° 57′ N. lat., and between 66° 41′ 30″ and 68° 49′ E. long. Karáchi District is bounded on the north by Shikárpur; on the east by the Indus and Haidarábád (Hyderábád); on the south by the sea and the Kori river; and on the west by the sea and Baluchistán or the territories of the Khán of Khelát (Kalát), the river Hab (Habb) forming for a considerable distance the line of demarcation. The greatest length of the District from north to south is 200 miles, and its greatest breadth from east to west 110 miles. Area, 14,115 square miles, or 11·4 per cent of the British Districts of the Bombay Presidency, or 5·2 per cent. of the entire area, British and feudatory. Population (1881) 478,688 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at the city of KARACHI (Kurrachee).

Physical Aspects.—Karáchi District, an immense tract of land stretching from the mouth of the Indus to the Baluchi boundary,

differs considerably in appearance from the general level of the Province of Sind by its possession of a hilly western region, lying in the Sub-divisions of Kohistán and Karáchi. Numerous lateral ranges of considerable height here push forward into the plain from the Kirthar, or Hala, Mountains, and diversify the usually monotonous aspect of the arid surface by their spurs and offshoots. From this lofty and barren tract, intersected by deep and wide valleys, the general aspect of the country, as it runs south-eastward in a vast sloping plain, becomes more and more level, until in the extreme south the Indus Delta presents a broad expanse of low, flat, and unpicturesque alluvium, stretching away to the horizon in one unbroken sheet, only varied by the numerous creeks communicating with the ocean. Large forests of *babúl* and other trees fringe the river banks, and impart a somewhat fresher appearance to the otherwise dreary landscape. Elsewhere, however, the features of the Sind Delta stand unrelieved in their naked monotony.

The INDUS, the Great River of Sind, takes its rise in an unexplored region beyond British India, on the northern slopes of the sacred Kailás mountain, at an elevation of 16,000 feet above sea-level, in lat. 32° N., long. 81° E. It enters British territory in the Punjab, near Derbend, at the western base of the Mahában mountain, in lat. 34° 25′ N., and long. 72° 51′ E. At a distance of 812 miles from its source, it becomes navigable at Attock, in Ráwal Pindi District, and just above Mithánkot, in Derá Ghází Khán District, it receives the accumulated waters of the Sutlej, Jehlam (Jhelum), Chenáb, Rávi, and Beas (Biás), under the name of the Panjnád. It enters Sind from the north, near Kashmor town, in lat. 28° 26′ N., and long. 69° 47′ E., and flowing in a general southerly direction touches Karáchi District, and forms the boundary between Karáchi and Haidarábád as far as Jerruck town, whence it flows entirely through Karáchi District, and throwing off numerous branches, falls into the sea by several mouths, extending along a coast-line of upwards of 125 miles.

The delta of the Indus comprises an area of from 2000 to 3000 square miles, of an almost uniform level, but with a submerged belt fringing the coast of an average breadth of twenty miles. Unlike the densely wooded delta of the Ganges, that of the Indus is almost entirely destitute of timber. The river is continually changing its current, particularly in its lower courses, and the different mouths are constantly shifting. In the early part of the century, the two great arms of the river were the Baghiár and the Sítá, both of which were then navigable by large vessels, but in 1837 the former was found to be quite deserted by the river. Prior to 1819, the town of Sháhbandar (King's port), on the Bagána (or Mal) branch, was an important naval station of the Kalhora princes, and ships of war were

stationed there. This town is now [illegible] inland from the nearest point of the river. The principal mouth of the Indus at present (1884) is the Hajamro branch. On the eastern side of the entrance is a large beacon [illegible] feet high, visible [illegible] miles to seaward, and two pilot boats are stationed inside the bar. In [illegible] the Baghar branch was so small as only to be suited for the passage of small boats at flood-tide.

The Indus was first navigated by steamers in [illegible]. In [illegible] two steamers were employed for military purposes when Lord Keane's army landed in Sind en route to Afghanistan; and in [illegible] steam vessels took an important part in the conquest of the Province. After annexation, a Government navy steam flotilla was maintained on the Indus, with its head-quarters at Kotri, mainly for the transport of troops, treasure, and Government stores between Karáchi and Multán. The Government flotilla was broken up in [illegible], and several of its steamers and stock made over to a company worked in conjunction with the railway then in construction between Karáchi and Kotri. On the completion of the Sind railway system, and its connection with the general railway system of India, the necessity for a steam flotilla on the Indus ceased, and it has recently been broken up, and the vessels sold. For a general account of the Indus, its navigation and irrigation capabilities, etc., see the articles INDUS RIVER and SIND PROVINCE.

The only other river of any importance in Karáchi District is the HAB, forming the western boundary between Sind and Baluchistán. A few minor torrents take their rise among the western hills, but consist of dry watercourses during the greater portion of the year, only inundated on a few rare occasions, when heavy rains fall on the higher ranges, in which they have their sources. The MANCHHAR LAKE, in Sehwán Sub-division, forms the only considerable sheet of water in any part of Sind. The hot springs of Pir Mangho, situated about six or seven miles north of Karáchi town, among some very barren and rocky hills, attract many visitors on account of their picturesque surroundings. They gush up from a clump of date trees, which covers the extremity of a craggy limestone knoll, in a pretty valley enclosed by considerable heights. A swamp close by is famous for its immense number of crocodiles, which rank among the chief sights of Karáchi. Hundreds of these monsters bask lazily in the sun, by the side of a green, slimy, stagnant pool, or move sluggishly about in search of food. A mosque crowns the summit of a neighbouring crag, with a neat white cupola and slender minarets.

The fauna include the leopard, hyæna, wolf, jackal, fox, bear, antelope, and wild sheep. Among birds, vultures, grey pigeon, partridge, and quail are common. Reptiles of various kinds abound, especially in Kohistán.

History.—From the early Arab invasions of Sind in the beginning of the eighth century A.D down to the time (1839) hen Karáchi town was taken by the British, the District had experienced the vicissitudes of seven dynasties or systems of administration. These were, in order of succession,—those of the early invaders, of Mahmúd of Ghazní and his commanders, of the Sammas from Cutch, of the Arghún family, of the Mughals, of the Kalhora princes, and of the Tálpur Mírs. The ancient town of SEHWAN contains the ruins of a fort of great antiquity. Local tradition ascribes its origin to Alexander the Great, who sailed down the Indus from the country of the Malli (Múltán), and despatched Nearchus, doubtless from some point (suggested to be at Tatta) in the present District, to explore the Persian Gulf. It is, however, more generally identified with the Sindomani existing in the time of Alexander. In later times it was known as Sewastán. The town already possessed considerable importance when Muhammad Kásim Sakifi, the first Musalmán invader of Sind, obtained its submission about 713 A.D., after his conquest of Nerankot, the modern Haidarábád. The date 713 marks the first Arab invasion of the District. Between 1019 and 1026 the invasions of Mahmúd of Ghazní took place, and in 1351 the Samma tribe from Cutch (Kachchh) settled first at Sehwán and afterwards at Tatta. Close under the Makli Hills stood Samui, the capital of the Samma dynasty of princes; originally a Hindu or Buddhist race, who maintained their independence of the Muhammadan power from 1351 to 1521. Converted to the faith of Islám about the close of the 14th century, they still continued to retain their practical autonomy, in spite of a nominal allegiance tendered to Firoz Tughlak of Delhi; and the town of TATTA, where they generally resided, became in after years the chief centre of population and commerce for the whole of Sind.

In 1521, Sháh Beg, founder of the Arghún dynasty, completely defeated the last Samma prince, and established his own claim to the sovereignty of the lower Indus valley. After a continuance of only thirty-four years, however, the Arghún line became extinct in the person of Sháh Husain, son of the founder, who died childless in 1554. Mírzá Jáni Beg, the last local ruler of Tatta, was defeated by an army of the Mughal Emperor Akbar in 1592; and the District, together with the rest of Sind, became incorporated with the Múltán (Mooltan) *subah* in the imperial organization of the country. 'The country of Tatta,' however, was made over to Jáni Beg, who entered the Mughal service after his defeat, and compromised for his independence by accepting his former territories in *jágír*. Continued struggles for the governorship of Tatta led Jahángír to abolish the hereditary viceroyalty, and to appoint instead special lieutenants holding office during the imperial pleasure. The town of Karáchi itself appears to have attained little importance

either under the native dynasties or the Mughal administration. Its rise into notice began with the period of the Tálpur Mírs, who succeeded the Kalhora princes in 1793 (*see* HAIDARABAD). They first recognised the value of the harbour for commerce. The capture of the Manora fort in 1839 put the British in possession of the town. The District was ceded in November 1842. Karáchi town grew rapidly under the new administration, and became the principal port of North-Western India. Karáchi District, as at first constituted, did not embrace so wide an area as at present; but in 1861, a portion of the Indus Delta, composing the present Sháhbandar Sub-division, was taken from Haidarábád, and incorporated with this District.

Population.—The Census of 1872 returned the population of Karáchi District at 426,722. The total number of inhabitants in the District on 17th February 1881 amounted to 478,688 persons, scattered over an area of 14,115 square miles, inhabiting an aggregate of 723 towns and villages, and dwelling in 87,059 houses. In the nine years ending 1881, there has thus been an increase of 51,966, or 12·17 per cent. From the data given by the Census of 1881, the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 33·91; villages per square mile, 0·05; persons per village, 538; and per town, 30,437. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 265,988; females, 212,700; proportion of males, 55·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—105,823 boys, 86,252 girls; total children, 192,075, or 40·1 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Karáchi is an essentially Muhammadan District, the Census showing a total of 390,067 Musalmáns, as against 68,975 Hindus. The Muhammadans include 382,811 Sunnís, 6967 Shiás, 52 Wahábís, and 237 'other' Muhammadans. Divided into tribes, there are 85,314 Balúchís, 2686 Patháns, 7314 Sayyids, 8092 Shaikhs, 246,760 Sindhis, and 39,901 'other' Muhammadans. There are 10,819 Sikhs, mostly trading in the towns. The Hindu population embraces 3883 Bráhmans, 359 Rájputs, 43,869 Lohánas, and 20,864 'other' Hindus; 3050 are returned as aboriginal tribes. The Christian population includes the large number of 4674 persons (including the garrison); while 9 Jains, 969 Pársís, 106 Jews, 3 Buddhists, and 16 Brahmos complete the total.

As regards occupation, the male population is divided into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and the learned professions, 4917; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 6516; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 14,220; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 83,390; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 29,830; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, and persons of unspecified occupation, 127,115.

Of the 723 towns and villages in the District, 227 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 242 between two and five hundred; 166 between five hundred and one thousand; 65 between one and two thousand; 12 between two and three thousand; 4 between three and five thousand; 6 between five and ten thousand; and 1 over fifty thousand. The following are the chief towns:—KARACHI, 73,560; KOTRI, 8922; SEHWAN, 4524; BUBAK, 2836; DADU, 2270; TATTA, 8830; KETI-BANDAR, 2141; MANJHAND, 2654; and MIRPUR BATORO, 3102.

Agriculture.—In the Karáchi Sub-division, cultivation exists only on a few isolated spots, and depends upon wells, springs, or natural rainfall. Here the chief crops are *joár*, *bájra*, barley, and sugar-cane, grown chiefly on the Malir plain, distant from Karáchi city some 12 miles, and easily accessible by rail. In Jerruck and Sháhbandar, where numerous creeks and channels intersect the alluvial flats, rice forms the staple crop; but wheat, sugar-cane, millets, cotton, and tobacco are also grown. The Western Nára Canal supplies the means of irrigation in Sehwán Sub-division. In the barren hills of Kohistán, agriculture is practically unknown; and the nomad population devotes itself almost entirely to grazing cattle in the southern plains, where abundance of forage springs up spontaneously after every fall of rain. The harvest seasons recognised in the District are three in number—*kharíf*, sown in May or June, and reaped in October, November, or December; *rabi*, sown in November or December, and reaped in March or April; and *adháwa*, sown in January, and reaped in March.

In 1882–83, out of the 9,033,600 acres in the District, only 594,638 acres were cultivated land bearing assessment and in occupation; 65,584 acres were fallow; while 209,805 acres, though cultivable and assessed, were not in occupation. Irrigation is afforded by upwards of 1350 miles of natural and artificial water channels. Of the area cropped, 43,165 acres were under wheat, 18,023 under barley, 146,581 under rice, 109,171 under millets (*joár* and *bájra*), 21,896 under other cereals, 5548 under garden produce, 1366 under sugar-cane, 40,618 under oil-seeds, 700 acres under cotton, 78 under other fibres, 4918 under pulse, 407 under tobacco, and 24,856 under other products; giving a total of 417,327 acres, of which 17,557 acres were twice cropped. In regard to cotton, a decrease in the average out-turn took place in 1882–83. The prices of agricultural produce ruling during 1882 were, per *maund* of 82 lbs., as follows:—Wheat, 6s. 8½d.; barley, 3s. 8¼d.; best rice, 8s. 2d.; common rice, 4s. 9½d.; millet, from 3s. 6d. to 4s. 4d.; gram, 4s. 5½d.; salt, 4s. 6½d.; flour, 9s. 4¾d.; *dál*, 7s.; *ghí*, £2, 19s. 2¾d. The wages of skilled labour were in the same period from 1s. 6d. to 3s. a day; unskilled, 7½d. to 1s. 3d. Cart-

hire, 5s. a day; boat-hire, 4s. a day; camel-hire, 1s. a day for baggage camels, and from 1s. 6d. to 2s. a day for others.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of the District centres mainly in the town and port of KARACHI. The staple exports consist of grain, principally wheat, cotton, and wool.

Karáchi District contains three seaports, namely, KARACHI, KETI, and SIRGANDA. The average value of the foreign trade, which is practically confined to Karáchi port, for the five years ending 1882–83, was—imports, £797,645; exports, £1,633,428; total, £2,431,073. In 1882–83, the value of the imports was £1,219,058, and exports, £2,661,754; total, £3,880,812, or £1,449,739 above the average of the five years. The average value of the coastwise trade for all ports for the five years ending 1882–83 was—imports, £2,111,161; exports, £973,693; total, £3,084,854. In 1882–83, the coastwise trade was returned as follows:—Imports, £2,141,273; exports, £1,159,113; total, £3,300,386, or £215,532 above the average of the five years. For details of the import and export trade, see the article on KARACHI town, where the sea-borne foreign commerce of the District, and practically of the Province of Sind, is centred. The coast-borne trade includes re-imports and re-exports from and to Karáchi, which are included in the values of the foreign trade given above.

Extensive salt deposits of the purest description occur in Sháhbandar Sub-division, on the Sirganda creek, a branch of the Indus, accessible for small craft of from 50 to 60 tons burthen. According to Captain Burke, of the Bombay Engineers, who surveyed the beds in 1847, they are capable of supplying the whole world with all the salt it needed for a hundred years. Owing to the double excise duty, however, Sirganda salt was long unable to compete with inferior descriptions sent from other quarters; and the removal of the export duties in 1868 has not improved the trade to the extent anticipated.

The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs through the entire length of the District, from Karáchi to Phulji, *viâ* Kotri, a distance of over 230 miles, with 15 stations, the principal ones being Karáchi City and Cantonment, Jungsháhi (for Tatta), Meting (for Jerruck), Kotri, Laki, and Sehwán. It forms the outlet not only for local products, but for a large wheat traffic from the North-West Provinces. The sea-fishery of the District is carried on by the Muhána tribe of Musalmáns, who reside for the most part at Karáchi. The principal fish caught on the coast are sharks, rays, and skates. The pearl oyster is found at several places on the coast, and the Mírs conduct pearl operations on their own account. Under British rule, the right has been let for a small sum; but the pearls are very inferior in size and quality, so that the industry has greatly declined of

late years. Considerable fisheries also exist in the river Indus, chiefly for the fish known as *pala;* and Government derives a small revenue from this source.

The local manufactures are confined to Karáchi town; Tatta is noted for *lungis*, and Bubak, near Sehwán, for carpets. Numerous fairs are held in the District; 35 only are of importance, lasting from one to four days, and attended by from 500 to 16,000 persons.

Administration.—The administration of this extensive District is conducted by a Collector-Magistrate, assisted by the several Deputy Collectors, as well as by the *Huzur* Deputy Collector, permanently stationed at head-quarters. The District and Sessions Judge, with his principal court at Karáchi, holds periodical sessions at Kotri, Tatta, Batoro, Sehwán, and one other town. In 1882–83, there were 5 civil judges and 38 stipendary magistrates in the District; maximum distance of a village from nearest court, 60 miles; average distance, 6 miles. The canals of the District form a separate charge, under the superintendence of officials appointed by the Public Works Department. The total police force in the District in 1882 numbered 1376 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 9·5 square miles and to every 324 of the population. The police were maintained at a cost in 1882 of £25,029. The gross imperial revenue in 1882–83 amounted to £156,327, of which sum £77,503 was contributed by the land-tax. The small amount yielded by the land revenue is due to the large proportion, viz. 90·4 per cent., of barren or desert area within the District. The revenue from excise amounted to £17,131. There are 26 forests in the District, with an aggregate area of 137 square miles. Most of them lie along the banks of the Indus, in the Sháhbandar Sub-division. Education has made some advance, but the progress is more striking in Karáchi than in the villages of the interior. The total number of State inspected schools in 1882–83 amounted to 71, with a roll of 5197 pupils. This is exclusive of unaided or indigenous schools, uninspected by the Education Department; and in 1881 the Census Report returned 6081 boys and 791 girls as under instruction, besides 18,563 males and 1179 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is sub-divided into the 4 Sub-divisions of KARACHI, SEHWAN, JERRUCK, and SHAHBANDAR, each of which see separately.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Karáchi city and the neighbouring country, which is in every direction open to the sea-breeze, possesses a great superiority to that which prevails throughout the remainder of Sind. The hill country of Kohistán is also cooler in summer and warmer in winter than is the case in the plains. In the north, on the other hand, near the barren Laki range of hills, the heat often becomes insupportable. The hot season commences about the middle or

end of March, reaches its maximum in the month of July, and lasts till the end of August, when the temperature once more becomes tolerably cool. The rainfall at Karáchi is slight and fluctuating, the average hardly exceeding 5 inches per annum. Sometimes one or two years elapse with scarcely a shower. The fall for the four years ending 1874 was 0·12, 7·60, 2·50, and 8·29 inches respectively. In 1874, the maximum reached by the thermometer was 101° F., and the minimum 42°. Karáchi city is said to enjoy the healthiest climate in all Sind. Fevers prevail at the setting in of the cold season; and in the hot weather, external inflammations, ulcers, and skin diseases cause much trouble. Cholera appeared in an epidemic form in 1865, 1867, and 1869, in the last of which years terrible mortality occurred in the town of Kotri. In 1882–83, 9871 births were registered and 8807 deaths, giving a death-rate of 18·4 per 1000. Fever caused by far the largest portion of the deaths. The mean ratio of deaths during the five years ending 1882 was 16 per thousand. In the same year 22,258 persons were vaccinated. [For further information regarding Karáchi District, see the *Gazetteer of the Province of Sind*, by Mr. A. W. Hughes (London, George Bell & Co., 1876, second edition). Also Mr. Stack's *Memorandum upon the Current Land Revenue Settlements in the temporarily settled parts of British India*, p. 551; the *Bombay Census Report of* 1881; and the several Provincial Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1883.]

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Karáchi District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in the south-west of the District, between 24° 44′ and 26° 4′ N. lat., and between 66° 41′ 45″ and 67° 59′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1291 square miles; containing 1 town and 3 villages, with 12,654 houses. Population (1881) 88,588, namely, 52,270 males and 36,318 females. Hindus numbered 25,690; Muhammadans, 52,845; Sikhs, 2640; aboriginal tribes, 2194; Christians, 4165; Jews, 93; Pársís, 937; Jains, 9; Brahmos, 12; and Buddhists, 3.

Bounded north by Kohistán and the Hab river; on the west by the Hab and the Arabian Sea; on the south by the Arabian Sea; and on the east by Jerruck. Hilly towards the north and west, where several lofty and barren ranges occur. A small chain of hills runs for some miles parallel to the Hab river, terminating in the headland of Ras Muár or Cape Monze, a landmark for sailors making the port of Karáchi. The hills afford good pasturage after the rains for cattle sent from the lowlands. The *táluk* contains no canals, but is drained by several mountain torrents, the chief of which are the Malir and Layári. Salt marshes occur along the sea-coast, and abound with mangroves and other marsh trees. The hot springs of Pir Mangho are within the *táluk*, 7 miles north of Karáchi city. There are no forests. Crocodiles, leopards, and wild sheep are found. Sharks and sardines (*Clupea*

neohowii) frequent the coast. Revenue in 1882–83, exclusive of the revenue of Karáchi city, £4775. The only municipality is that of KARACHI. Much of the fertile portion of the *táluk* is devoted to raising vegetables and fruit for the Karáchi market. Custard-apples, guavas, mangoes, oranges, grapes, and melons are produced. Up to 1876 no regular settlement had been effected. According to the system then in force, there were two rates of land-tax—those on garden and dry crop lands, the former being about 2s. and the latter 1s. The *táluk* contains 2 civil and 6 criminal courts; police-stations (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 579 men.

Karáchi (*Kurrachee*).—Seaport, chief town, cantonment, and municipality in Karáchi District, Sind Province, Bombay Presidency. Karáchi is situated in lat. 24° 51′ 9″ N., and long. 67° 4′ 15″ E., at the extreme northern end of the Indus Delta, near the southern base of the Pab Mountains of Baluchistán. Population (1881) 73,560 (town, 68,332; cantonment, 5228).

Position, etc.—The bay of Karáchi is formed by the projecting headland of Manora Point, the extremity of a reef 10 miles in length, which supplies a natural barrier against the waters of the Arabian Sea. The opening of the bay between Manora and the opposite sanitarium of Clifton has a width of about 3½ miles; but the mouth is blocked by a group of rocky islets, known as the 'Oyster Rocks,' as well as by the larger island of Kiamári, a little in the rear. The harbour stretches for 5 miles northward from Manora Head to the narrows of the Layári river, and about the same distance from the old town of Karáchi on the eastern shore to the extreme western point. Only a small portion of this extensive area, however, is capable of accommodating large vessels. Manora Head, the first object visible to a voyager approaching Karáchi from the sea, is crowned by a lighthouse, having a fixed light 120 feet above sea-level, and visible for 17 miles around in clear weather. The point also affords room for a fort, said to have been first erected in 1797, the port and pilot establishment, the buildings in connection with the harbour improvements, and a portion of the Indo-European telegraph department. Besides a library, billiard-room, and European school, Manora possesses an English church, intended for the crews of vessels frequenting the harbour.

On the opposite side of the mouth, the island of Kiamári forms the landing-place for all passengers and goods bound for Karáchi, and has three piers. A road running along the Napier Mole, 3 miles long, connects the island with the town and mainland. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway also extends to Kiamári; but instead of following the mole it takes a more circuitous route to the south by the edge of a large lagoon, the waters of which are passed through the mole by a fine screw-pile bridge, 1200 feet in length, erected

in 1865 at a cost of £47,500, so as to allow them to flow uninterruptedly into the harbour as a means of scouring the channel. At the northern extremity of this bridge, and running in a westerly direction, stands the native jetty, built of stone at an expense of £43,300. At the end of the mole, on the mainland side, the custom-house runs right across the road, which pierces it by five arches, thus intercepting all traffic.

Two principal thoroughfares lead from the custom-house to the Karáchi cantonments, known respectively as the Bandar and the M'Leod roads. The oldest portion of the town is situated along the former route, close to the harbour, containing the most thickly populated quarter in Karáchi. The municipality has lately widened and paved the streets, and effected other improvements which must conduce to the health of the inhabitants, who are chiefly Hindu and Muhammadan merchants. The Layári, a river only in name, as it contains water only some three or four times a year, separates this quarter from the Layári suburb. On the M'Leod Road are situated the court-house, the new Bank of Bombay, the Agra Bank, the Chamber of Commerce, Messrs. Mackenzie & Cosser's ironworks, and three important cotton-press houses—the M'Leod Road presses, owned by the Sind Press Company, capable of turning out daily 350 pressed bales of cotton; the Tyabjí presses, erected in 1865 at a cost of £22,000, and turning out 250 bales; and the Albert presses, leased to the Sind Press Company, and turning out 390 bales. This quarter also contains the charitable dispensary, the railway station, several schools, a new Hindu temple, and most of the offices belonging to European merchants. The Afghán *sarái*, intended for the use of Káfilas, or caravans from Kandahár, rebuilt by the municipality in 1873 at a cost of £1954, covers an area of about 3 acres. Nearer to the cantonments, a number of bungalows stand on the intervening space; while the civil lines skirt the cantonment itself to the eastward.

The military quarter, which is situated to the north and east of the town proper, consists of three portions—the depôt lines, the artillery lines, and the European infantry lines. The depôt lines are the oldest military portion of Karáchi, and supply accommodation to troops passing up-country from the sea or *vice versâ*. The depôt was abolished in 1871, and all invalid soldiers from the Punjab are now sent by rail to Bombay *viâ* Jabalpur. The artillery lines have three fine upper-storied barracks, a hospital, gunsheds, workshops, racket-courts, bowling-alleys, and a plunge-bath. The European infantry lines can house an entire regiment. The Government garden, distant about half a mile from cantonments, covers an area of 40 acres, neatly laid out with trees and shrubs.

Chief Buildings.—The architecture of Karáchi is essentially modern and Anglo-Indian. The principal church is the Anglican one of the

Holy Trinity, situated in the cantonments. It stands in a large open space, 15 acres in extent, and consists of a heavy, ungainly Italian nave, with a disproportionately tall and ugly tower. The old Roman Catholic Chapel of St. Patrick, also situated in the cantonments, cannot be said to represent any particular style of architecture, and has now been converted into a school for boys, since the construction of a new building called St. Patrick's Church. St. Patrick's school is a fine stone building, capable of accommodating 40 boarders and 200 day-scholars. The European and Indo-European school, founded in 1854, under the auspices of the late Sir Bartle Frere, then Commissioner of Sind, occupies a handsome stone structure in the depôt lines. The other chief modern institutions include the Presbyterian Church of St. Andrew, Christ's Church and mission schools, the Napier Barracks, Gisri Military Sanitarium, and post-office. The Frere Hall, a municipal building named in honour of the late Commissioner, stands on a slight elevation near Trinity Church. It was opened in a somewhat unfinished state in October 1865, up to which date £17,391 had been expended upon its erection. This hall, which is a comparatively good specimen of slightly adapted Venetian Gothic, contains the Karáchi General Library and Museum. Government House, the residence of the Commissioner of Sind, is situated in the civil quarter, and consists of a central building with two wings, approached by five separate carriage drives. Though commodious and comfortable in its interior arrangements, the exterior can lay no claim to architectural beauty. It was originally built by Sir Charles Napier when Governor of the Province. It was purchased by Government for £5000 in 1847, and an upper storey was added by General Jacob when acting-Commissioner in 1856.

History.—Karáchi came into British possession in 1842. The town may be regarded as almost a creation of British rule, its extensive commerce, splendid harbour works, and numerous flourishing institutions having all sprung up since the introduction of our settled administration. Before 1725, no town whatever appears to have existed on the site; but a town named Kharak, with a considerable commerce, is mentioned as lying on the other side of the Hab river at the confluence of the river and the sea. The entrance to Kharak harbour, however, becoming blocked with sand, a migration was made to a spot near the present head of Karáchi harbour, and at that time (1729) called Kaláchi Kun; and in time, under Jám Daria Khán Jokia, some little trade began to centre upon the convenient harbour. Cannon brought from Muscat fortified the little fort, and the name of Karáchi, supposed to be a corrupt form of Kaláchi, was bestowed upon the rising village. The hopeless blocking up of Sháhbandar harbour shortly afterwards drove much of its former trade and population to Karáchi.

Under the Kalhora princes, the Khán of Khelát obtained a grant of the

town, which he garrisoned from his own territory. Within the short period 1792–1795, three Balúch armies appeared before the town; but only on the third occasion did the Talpur chief of Haidarábád, who led the Balúch troops, gain possession by force of arms. A fort was built at Manora, at the mouth of the harbour. The Talpur chiefs made considerable efforts to increase the trade of Karáchi, so that in 1838 the town and suburbs had a population of 14,000, half of whom were Hindus. The houses were all flat-roofed, and built of mud, very few of them having more than one storey: each house had its *badgir* or wind-catcher for the purposes of ventilation. The Government under the Mírs was vested in a civil and military official, the Nawáb, who ruled despotically over the town and neighbourhood.

Population.—The Census of 1881 returned the total number of inhabitants, including the cantonment, at 73,560, namely, 43,561 males and 29,999 females. The military force, with camp followers, amounted to 5228 men, comprising a battery of Royal Artillery, 1 European and 1 Native infantry regiment, and the men and families of the ordnance and barrack departments. The Muhammadans numbered 38,946, and the Hindus 24,617, Christians, 4161; Pársís, 937; Jains, 9; and 'others,' 4890. The proportion of European inhabitants in Karáchi is unusually large.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Even before the period of British rule, the commerce of Karáchi had attained to some importance, owing to the value of the river Indus as a channel of communication. Nevertheless, the sparse population of the country, combined with the short-sighted and selfish policy of its rulers, prevented it from reaching its proper development. Under the Talpur Mírs, all imports were subjected to a 4 per cent. duty, and all exports to one of 2½ per cent. In 1809, the customs revenue amounted to £9900; by 1838, it had risen to £15,000. In the latter year, the whole trade of the town was valued at £374,700. The following list gives the value of the principal articles of trade in 1837, under the Mírs, six years before British annexation:—Imports—English silk, broadcloth, chintz, etc., £60,000; Bengal and China raw silk, £24,800; slaves, £12,000; dates, £10,000; sugar, £8500; ivory, £6400; copper, £5400; spices, £5850; and cotton, £3750: Exports—opium, £160,000; *ghí*, £17,000; indigo, £12,000; wheat, £6750; madder, £4500; wool, £3500; raisins, £3200; and salt fish, £3000. Slaves came chiefly from Muscat, and consisted of negroes or Abyssinians. Opium to the extent of 500 camel-loads came from Márwár, and was exported to the Portuguese town of Damán. Almost all the goods imported into Sind were then consumed within the Province, only £15,000 worth being sent across the frontier. The total gross revenue drawn from the town and port of Karáchi by the Mírs in 1837 amounted to £17,389.

In 1843–44, the first year of British rule, the trade of Karáchi, including Keti and Sirganda, had a total value of £122,160, comprising exports, £1010, and imports, £121,150. The second year of British rule saw a rise to £227,000, the third to £353,400, and the fifth to £442,602. By 1852–53, the total value had risen to £812,000, comprising imports, £535,690, and exports, £276,310. Apart from the increase in the trade as a whole, the rapid development of the exports deserves attention. In 1855–56, the figures stood as follows:—Imports, £629,813; exports, £604,440; total, £1,234,253. In 1857–58, the exports nearly overtook the imports, the two standing respectively at £1,081,101 and £1,078,128; total, £2,159,229. The American civil war gave an enormous impetus to the trade of Karáchi, by the high demand for Indian cotton which it created in the European markets; and in 1862–63, the total value of the trade amounted to no less than £5,316,424, viz. imports, £2,188,943, and exports, £3,127,481, being the first year in which the balance stood in favour of Karáchi. In 1863–64, the total returns rose to £6,567,685, viz. imports, £2,520,898, and exports, £4,046,787. The restoration of peace in America, however, brought about a lower price for cotton in the home markets, and the trade of Karáchi gradually returned to what was then considered its normal level. The total value sank from £5,058,802 in 1864–65, to £4,053,610 in 1867–68, and £3,507,684 in 1873–74.

In 1882–83, the trade of Karáchi port, both foreign and coastwise, had increased in value to £7,077,084, namely, imports, £3,329,148, and exports, £3,747,936. Including the two minor ports of Keti and Sirganda, the total sea-borne trade of Karáchi District (foreign and coastwise) was £7,181,199, or double that of nine years previously. The main cause of the increase is due to the annually augmenting exports of wheat and other food-grains, and oil-seeds. The following were the articles of foreign import, with their values, for the three ports, in 1882–83:—Apparel, £18,879; cotton piece-goods, £201,683; other cotton manufactures, £4467; cotton twist and yarn, and raw cotton, £33,360; raw wool, £30,180; manufactures of wool, £5505; coal and coke, £23,997; patent fuel, £12,964; hardware and cutlery, £23,530; malt liquors, £15,096; wines and liqueurs, £34,448; spirits, £68,665; metals, wrought and unwrought (chiefly copper, iron, and steel), £195,438; matches, £6466; provisions, £116,697; railway plant and rolling stock, £194,247; spices, £108; sugar, molasses, etc., £272; manufactured tobacco, £2744; hops, £19,405; machinery and mill-work, £15,016; paints, colours, painters' materials, printing and writing paper, £11,631; glass—sheet, plate, bottles, bead, etc., £8808; grain, £6974 (wheat, £5218, and pulse, £1756); leather, unwrought and manufactured, £6539; drugs and medicines, £5612;

military and other uniforms and accoutrements, £5373; arms and ammunition, £5312; other merchandise, £11,344; and specie, £32,202: total imports from foreign ports, including treasure, £1,219,058. The following list shows some of the countries from which these imports were received:—United Kingdom, £571,574; Persia, £43,545; France, £3162; Italy, £3460; United States, £23,764; Austria, £728; Arabia, £13,730. The imports coastwise into Karáchi and the two subordinate ports in 1882-83, amounted to £1,939,122 of private merchandise and £202,151 of specie, giving a total of £2,141,273, of which £2,010,100 represented the imports of Karáchi port alone. The imports, foreign and coastwise, into the three ports amounted to £3,360,332.

From the United Kingdom, Karáchi imports cotton manufactures, railway materials, liquors, coal and coke, machinery, metals, provisions, apparel, drugs, and medicines; from Bombay, cotton piece-goods and twist, treasure, metals, silk, sugar, tea, jute, spices, dyes, woollen manufactures, cocoa-nuts, manufactured silk, liquors, fruit, and vegetables; from the Persian Gulf, dried fruits, treasure, wool, grain, and horses; from the coast of Makrán, wool, provisions, grain, and pulses; from Calcutta, jute, sugar, grain, and pulses; from the United States, oil for lighting and other purposes; and from Persia, dyeing materials.

The following list shows the value of the exports to foreign ports from the three ports in 1882-83:—Apparel, £2192; raw cotton, twist and yarn, £241,686; cotton goods, £19,837; dyes (mostly indigo), £49,245; fruits and vegetables, £385; grain and pulses, £1,376,739, of which £1,281,268 represented wheat; hides and skins, £40,815; oil, £5413; provisions, £6913; oil-seeds, chiefly rape and *til* (Sesamum indicum), £583,495; wood, £988; raw wool, £239,945; shawls and other woollen manufactures, £1290; sugar, £572; specie, £42,070; and other articles, £50,169. Total value of exports, including treasure, £2,661,754. The following list shows the distribution among the several countries:—United Kingdom, £823,914; Bombay, £913,625; France, £588,690; Mauritius, £7356; Madras, £1897; Persia, £110,227; Arabia, £9341; Cutch, £107,762; Austria, £23,765; Bengal, £6936; Italy, £19,843; China, £109,293; and to other countries, £986,549, or about a million sterling. The exports coastwise from Karáchi and the two ports of Keti and Sirganda amounted to £1,159,113 in 1882-83, of which £1,026,200 represented the exports of Karáchi alone. The exports, foreign and coastwise, from the three ports amounted to £3,820,867.

To the United Kingdom, Karáchi exports cotton, wool, indigo, seeds, hides, skins, tea, and oils; to France, wheat, cotton, gingelli, and rape-seed; to Bombay, Cutch, and Gujarát (Guzerat), cotton, grain, ghí,

indigo, oils, seeds, rice, raw silk, shawls, wool, and horses; to Mauritius, grain, pulses, and oils; to Persia, indigo, oils, hides, skins, and piece-goods; to Madras, horses; and to China, raw cotton.

The inland trade of Karáchi includes, besides goods from the Upper Provinces by rail, a large quantity of wool, dried fruits, and horses from Kandahár and Khelát; while camels, bullocks, and donkeys bring in firewood, grass, *ghí*, date-leaves, hides, etc., from Las Belá and Kohistán.

The total coasting trade of the three ports, import and export, was in 1882-83, £3,300,386, of which £3,096,300 represented Karáchi port alone. It must be remembered that these figures include re-imports and re-exports which have already been given in the figures for foreign trade. The total sea-customs revenue of Karáchi port in 1882-83 amounted to £41,117—viz. import duty, £35,025; export duty, £6151. The customs duties were abolished throughout India in 1882, with the exception of the import duties on salt, wines and spirits, opium, arms and ammunition. Karáchi is therefore now practically a free port.

Shipping, etc.—The harbour of Karáchi, during the period of the Talpur Mírs, and for the first few years after British annexation, was only capable of accommodating small native craft. Steamers and large ships anchored outside Manora Point, whence men and stores were conveyed in boats up the river, as far as the tide permitted, and then transferred into canoes, which carried them through a sea of liquid mud to a spot near the site of the existing custom-house. In process of time, however, it became apparent that the bar did not interpose so great an obstacle as was originally supposed, and that square-rigged vessels of a certain draught could cross it with safety. Up to 1851, only one English sailing ship had entered the harbour. In 1852, however, the *Duke of Argyle*, a vessel of 800 tons, arrived at Karáchi from England direct with troops, coal, and iron. In 1854, under the Chief Commissionership of the late Sir Bartle Frere, the Napier Mole road or causeway, connecting Karáchi with the island of Kiamári, was completed, and thus offered additional inducements to ships for visiting the harbour.

In 1856, a scheme for improving the harbour by deepening the water on the bar was submitted for the opinion of Mr. James Walker, an eminent London engineer, who estimated the cost of works to provide an ample width of passage with a depth of 25 feet at neap tides, at £287,000. After much debate and intermissions, owing to partial failures, the principal part of the works—the Manora breakwater, 1503 feet in length—was commenced in March 1869, and completed in February 1873. It affords complete shelter to the western channel over the bar during the south-west monsoon, and combined with other works, has already led to the deepening

at the entrance to 20 feet at low-water spring tides. The rise and fall is about 8 feet. The other portions of these extensive works include the Kiamári groyne or stone bank, the east pier, the screw-pile bridge on the Napier Mole, the native jetty, and the Chini creek stoppage. The total expenditure on the harbour improvements, up to December 1873, amounted to £449,798.

In 1847-48, the number of vessels which entered the harbour was 891, all native craft, with a total burden of 30,509 tons. In 1873-74, the list included 30 square-rigged sailing vessels, 152 steamers, and 731 native craft, making a total of 913 ships, with a tonnage of 161,284 tons, or more than five times that of 1847. In 1882-83, 373 vessels (of which 95 were steam vessels) entered Karáchi harbour with cargoes from foreign ports: gross tonnage, 105,251 tons. In the same year 398 vessels (of which 148 were propelled by steam) cleared with cargoes from Karáchi for foreign ports: gross tonnage, 175,896 tons. From the ports on the coasts of India and Burma 1551 vessels entered Karáchi laden with cargoes; tonnage 198,673; of these 1382 were native craft. For the ports on the coasts of India and Burma 1252 vessels cleared from Karáchi laden with cargoes, tonnage 178,100; of these 1100 were native craft.

Municipality, etc.—The Karáchi municipality was established in September 1852. Its revenue in 1874 amounted to £22,596, and its expenditure to £20,142. In 1882-83, the municipal income was £30,126, and the expenditure £40,732; incidence of municipal taxation, 5s. 2d. per head. The municipal police force in 1881 numbered 56 men. The jail, completed in 1868, is capable of accommodating nearly 800 prisoners. Education is carried on by the Government high school, Anglo-vernacular schools, 13 Government vernacular schools, and several female and other minor establishments. Ten schools, with 942 pupils, were within municipal limits in 1882-83, supported by local funds. Six newspapers or periodicals are published at Karáchi, three English (including the Government *Sind Official Gazette*, with a vernacular translation; and the *Sind Gazette*) and three native (in Sindí, Gujaráthí, and Persian respectively). The five charitable dispensaries afforded relief in 1883 to 48,505 persons, of whom 1010 were in-door patients treated in Karáchi Civil Hospital. A sick hospital was established in 1869, in connection with the cantonments.

Medical Aspects, Water-Supply, etc.—The climate of Karáchi, owing to the prevalence of sea-breezes during eight months of the year, has a better reputation for healthiness than any other in Sind. The low situation of the city, and the near neighbourhood of marsh land, render the atmosphere both moist and warm; but the heat during the hottest months cannot compare with that experienced in the interior. The mean annual temperature, calculated from data extending over

the East Indian Railway. Of late years, however, a large sandbank has formed in front of the village, on account of which the steamer, except during the rainy season, is obliged to anchor at a point [illegible] miles farther down the river. Kárágolá contains a police-outpost station, *dák* bungalow or staging inn, and a post-office, which, until the opening of the Northern Bengal State Railway, was also the chief agency for the Government post-carriage service to Dárjíling. A native firm of carriage-owners is also established here.

The village of Kárágolá derives its chief importance from being the site of one of the largest fairs in the Lower Provinces of Bengal. It was formerly held at Pirpainti in Bhágalpur District, on the opposite bank of the Ganges; but early in the century it was removed to Purniah, and, after various shiftings, was held at Kárágolá in 1851, and has been regularly held there since, except in 1874, the year of the Behar scarcity. The fair is held on a large sandy plain, on ground belonging to the Mahárájá of Darbhanga. During the continuance of the fair, which lasts for ten days, the plain is covered with streets of small shops constructed of bamboos and matting, in which nearly every article required for domestic use is to be found. There is a large sale for cloth of all kinds, from thick English woollens, long-cloth of European and native make, down to fine Dacca muslins. A considerable trade is also carried on in iron ploughshares of Monghyr make and plain English cutlery. Brass and bell-metal cooking utensils are brought in great numbers from Calcutta and Rájsháhí. The south of Purniah supplies blankets and rugs from Sáifganj and Kadbá, and reed-mats from Balrámpur. Ornamental cabinet-ware, as well as common furniture, also stone handmills for grinding corn, etc., come from Monghyr. Calcutta and some of the large up-country towns send dressed leather, boots, looking-glasses, and Rámpur shawls. Spices from Murshidábád and Nadiyá, and lac ornaments and toys from Monghyr and Bírbhúm, are largely sold. A few dealers in trinkets and pedlars' ware also attend. Since the prohibition of the sale of firearms and ammunition, the attendance of Nepálís has somewhat diminished. They still visit the fair, however, bringing knives, *kukrís*, hill canes, *yák* tails, drugs, [illegible] little coarse lac, and hill ponies. Food-grain is only sold in such quantities as to meet the immediate requirements of the visitors. The business done is generally purely retail; but in some years, when country produce is in much request, and large stocks are on hand, [illegible] wholesale trade is developed during the last two or three days of the fair. In 1876, it was estimated that 40,000 persons attended. In 1881, the estimated attendance at the fair was 30,000. Epidemics frequently break out at the gathering; and since 1870, cholera has twice spread from Kárágolá over the District, with fatal results.

Area, 442 square miles, containing 1 town and 129 villages. Population (1872) 71,215; (1881) 83,216, namely, 41,888 males and 41,328 females, dwelling in 14,691 houses. Hindus numbered 74,689; Muhammadans, 8096; and 'others,' 431. Except in the south-west, where it is broken by hills, the country is flat. It is crossed from east to west by the Varada, a tributary of the Tungabhadra river. In the north and east the soil is black, and in the south and west mostly red, with an occasional plot of black. In 1881-82, out of 129,001 acres, the whole area occupied for tillage, 25,550 acres, or 19·8 per cent., were fallow or under grass. Of the 103,451 acres actually under tillage, grain crops occupied 51,210 acres; pulses, 12,410 acres, oil-seeds, 5415 acres; fibres, 30,815 acres; miscellaneous crops, 3601 acres. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, and has 1 police station (*thánd*), 37 regular police, and 204 village watchmen (*chaukidárs*). Land revenue, £19,232.

Karajgi.—Head-quarters of Karajgi Sub-division, Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 14° 52′ N., long. 75° 31′ E. Situated about 50 miles south-east of Dhárwár, and about seven miles north-east of Háveri station on the Harihar branch of the Southern Marátha Railway. Population (1881) 3838. Weekly market on Tuesdays, when millet and pulse are sold. Post-office.

Kárakal ('*Black-stone*').—Town in Udipi *táluk* or Sub-division of South Kánara District, Madras Presidency. Situated in lat. 13° 12′ 40″ N., and long 75° 1′ 50″ E.; on one of the main lines leading from Mysore to Mangalore (*viâ* Agúmbay *ghát*). Population (1871) 3269; (1881) 3392. Hindus numbered 2717; Muhammadans, 379, Christians, 240; and 'others,' 56. Number of houses, 611. The centre of a considerable rice trade. Kárakal was formerly a Jain town of some size and importance; and the antiquarian remains are very interesting. Chief among them is a colossal monolithic figure of Buddha or Gautama, locally known as Gumpta, after Gumta Ráya, once ruler of the country. The figure is placed on a huge black rock, and is within a fraction of 50 feet high. On the same rock or hill is a Jain pagoda or Basti, containing some images of the later Buddhist type. A high monolithic *Dwaja Stamba* (a kind of obelisk), the ruins of the Wadiyá's palace, a Hindu temple containing a figure of Anantashin, and a Jain impaling stone, are the other curiosities of the village.

Karakoram Pass.—The name applied to the point where the principal route between India and Eastern Túrkistán traverses the water-parting between the river basins of those two regions. Strictly, in the sense in which pass is used as equivalent to *col*, or as denoting a marked depression in an otherwise inaccessible ridge, the Karakoram Pass is a misnomer. Dr. T. Thomson, of the Bengal Army, the first European who is known to have set foot on it, and who reached it

the 19th August 1848, describes it as 'a rounded ridge connecting two hills, which rise somewhat abruptly to the height of perhaps 1000 feet above the summit of the pass.' Dr. Scully speaks of it in very similar language: 'Northwards (of the Depsang plain) we saw a few irregular, flat-topped hillocks. . . . We ascended a few hundred yards to a small commissure of loose detritus connecting two low hills, and found ourselves on the Karakoram Pass. The descent on the north side was even less than the ascent had been, and altogether the Karakoram Pass reminded one of a short embankment 300 feet or so above the level of the surrounding country.' Dr. Thomson remarks, that on the crest of the pass the rock was limestone, showing obscure traces of fossils; the shingle composed of a brittle black slate lay scattered over the ridge. Vegetation is entirely wanting.

The name Karakoram has been extended by some geographers to a fancied range occupying the exact line of water-parting between those streams which discharge into the Tarim basin and those which join the Indus, while others have applied the name to the closely contiguous range usually called Muztagh. The late Mr. R. B. Shaw, the well-known geographer, has, however, conclusively shown the fallacy of the former view; while as regards the second contention, the appropriateness of the name Muztagh (ice-mountain), and the fact that the Karakoram Pass lies some distance northward of this undoubted range, have since induced most geographers to restrict the name Karakoram to the above pass. The enormous physical difficulties of the Karakoram route, combined with the scarcity of supplies along it (apart from political considerations), must always prove an almost insuperable bar to any extensive exchange of intercourse between India and Eastern Túrkistán in this direction. Its height above mean sea-level is 18,550 feet. Lat. 35° 33' N.

Karamnása (*Karma-násá*, 'the Destroyer of Religious Merit').—The accursed stream of Hindu mythology; rising on the eastern ridge of the Káimur Hills, Sháhábád District, Bengal, in lat. 24° 34' 30" N., long. 83° 41' 30" E. It flows in a north-westerly direction, and near Daríhára it forms the boundary line between Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, separating Sháhábád from Mirzápur District; it then flows through Mirzápur for about 15 miles northwards; after which it runs north-eastwards, again marking the boundary between Sháhábád and the North-Western Provinces, until it falls into the right bank of the Ganges near Chausá, in lat. 25° 31' N., long. 83° 55' E., after a total course of about 146 miles. Its tributaries are the Durgauti and Dharmauti rivers, small streams which fall into its right bank. In the hills, the bed of the Karamnása is rocky, and its banks abrupt; but as it debouches upon the plains, it sinks deeply into a rich clay, very retentive of moisture. The stream

is here about 150 yards wide. By the end of February, the river generally runs dry, but during the rainy season boats of about 2 tons burden can proceed as far up as its confluence with the Durgautí. Near Chausá, the East Indian Railway crosses it on a stone bridge. At Chhanpathar, in its course through Mirzápur District, the river forms a waterfall 100 feet high, which, after heavy rains, affords a magnificent sight.

The river is held in the utmost abhorrence by Hindus, and no person of any caste will drink or even touch its waters, except persons permanently residing on its banks, who freely use the water, and are said to be exempt from the consequences of its impurity. The legendary reason of its impurity is said to be that a Bráhman having been murdered by Rájá Trisanku, of the Solar line, a saint purified him of his sin by collecting water from all the streams in the world, and washing him in their waters, which were collected in the spring from which the Karamnása now issues. This spot is near the village of Sárodag, and the river soon becomes a rapid streamlet of beautifully clear water with deep holes, and abounding in fish. The true reason of the evil reputation of the Karamnása is that at one time it formed the boundary between the ancient Aryan colonies of the north and the still unsubdued aboriginal tribes of the east. Bráhmans or other Aryan castes who crossed the Karamnása in that early period passed into regions destitute of 'religious merit.'

Karanbás.—Town in Anúpshahr *tahsíl*, Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces; situated on the right bank of the Ganges, 12 miles south-east of Anúpshahr, and 30 miles south-east of Bulandshahr town. Population (1881) 1921, almost all Hindus. The *zamíndárs* are wealthy Hindus of the Bais clan of Rájputs. The fair held here on the occasion of the *Dasahara*, in the month of Jaistha (May–June), is attended by perhaps as many as 50,000 pilgrims from the west, and is said to be the largest fair in the District. A small temple on an ancient site, sacred to the goddess of small-pox, is visited every Monday by numbers of women.

Karanguli (*Carunguli*).—Town in Madhurántakam *táluk* or Subdivision of Chengalpat District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 12° 32′ N., long. 79° 56′ 40″ E. Situated on the Great Southern Trunk Road, 48 miles distant from Madras. Population (1871) 2978; (1881) 3160, namely, 1560 males and 1600 females, occupying 407 houses. Hindus numbered 2969; Muhammadans, 162; and Christians, 29. The head-quarters of the District from 1795 to 1825; and once the *kasbá* or head-quarters of a *táluk*. The site, low-lying and surrounded with a bamboo fence, is unhealthy, and particularly liable to cholera. Though the town is now unimportant, the fort of Karanguli was occupied as a strategic point during the Anglo-

French wars of the Karnatic, being regarded as an outpost of Chengalpat, from which it is 15 miles distant to the south-west. These two places, with Wandiwash and Utremalúr, formed a sort of quadrilateral on the line of attack between the seats of the two Governments of Madras and Pondicherri. As early as 1755 it was a point of dispute. In 1757 it was evacuated by the English in the face of advancing French troops. The following year the English attempted to recover it by surprise, but were repulsed with loss; a failure which was repeated in 1759. But a few months later, Colonel Coote, after a few days' bombardment, captured the fort. This was the first decisive action in the successful campaign of 1759-60, which led to the victory of Wandiwash. The circumference of the fort is 1500 yards, and encloses the remains of what were apparently once huge granaries for the storage of grain, the tribute to the Muhammadan Government out of the produce of the neighbourhood. The ramparts of the fort now supply stone for the building of local public works.

Karanja (or *Uran*).—Island, village, and petty division of Panwel Sub-division, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Karanja, or, as better known, Uran Island, is situated in the south-east of Bombay harbour, and about 6 miles south-east of the Carnac Bandar of Bombay. On a clear day the island can be distinguished plainly, and apparently but a mile or two distant, from the Apollo Bandar in Bombay harbour. It is 8 miles long and 4 broad, and on the east is cut off from the mainland by the Bendkhal creek, which at high tide is filled through its whole length. The island consists of two two rocky hills, between which stretch grass and rice lands, wooded with mango trees and palms. The creek to the east is broken up into several salt-pans, the officers connected with which are stationed at the village of Uran close by. Beside its rice crop, which is of considerable value, the two special exports of Karanja Island are salt, and *mahuá* and date liquor. Salt is estimated to be worth £469,000, and the liquor £166,000 a year. The chief industry of the people, however, is fishing. The great area of the salt works, namely, about 3000 acres, the shining white pans, regular boundaries, and heaps of glistening salt, produce a curious effect to the eye. The salt-pans are not of recent date. Reference is made to them in 1638; and in 1820 they are noted as having produced 20,000 tons of salt. During the five years ending 1882, the salt export was about 51,125 tons, and the yearly revenue £271,934. There are 19 *mahuá* distilleries on the island, all owned by Pársís. The flower is brought through Bombay from the Panch Mahála, and the revenue they annually return is about £115,000.

The water-supply is good, and is derived from reservoirs, and from many ponds and wells which hold water for several months after the

rains. Of the reservoirs three may be noticed, one on the road-side half-way between Alora and Uran, a second between Uran and Karanja, and the third, the largest (about a quarter of a mile round), in Uran. The drinking water comes from springs.

Karanja has passed under every form of rule and suffered every species of vicissitude. Under the Silhárás, in the 12th century, the island was prosperous, with many villages and gardens. It formed part of Bassein Province, under the Portuguese, from 1530 to 1740; was fortified with two strongholds, one at Uran, the other on the top of its southern peak; and a hundred armed men were maintained as garrison. At the present day may still be seen the ruins of Portuguese hermitages and churches. In 1535 the island was in charge of the Franciscans. In 1613 it was the scene of a great riot. In 1670 it was plundered by a Maráthá freebooter. In 1737 the Maráthás finally occupied the place, and held it until 1774, when the English took possession.

A metalled road runs along the whole east side of the island; and a road, 14½ miles long, is being made between Uran and Panwel, to whose officials Karanja Island is subordinated as a petty division of 22 villages and one town, inclusive of three ports. The population of the island is included in the Census returns for 1881 with those of Panwel Sub-division. A steam ferry runs daily between Bombay and Mora, calling at Hog Island in the harbour, and at Ulva near Panwel, and returning the same day. Mora is the chief port of the island, where passengers land and embark for Bombay. Karanja is the name of a small fishing village in the south of no importance. The most noteworthy ruins are on the summit of Dronagiri, the southern of the two hill peaks, including the Portuguese fort, the guard-house, church, rock temple, and reservoir. On the east face of Kharavli (the north hill peak) is a Buddhist rock-cut chapel; at Uran town, the old Portuguese fort and churches; in the village of Sheva, a ruined church, of which the broken walls of the graveyard are the only trace.

Karanja Island is a favourite resort of snipe and duck, and is almost daily visited by sportsmen from Bombay.

Karanja.—Customs division in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The customs division contains three ports, viz. Mora, Karanja, and Sheva, which division has been since 1881–82 officially named Uran (*q.v.*).

Karanja.—Port in Karanja (or Uran) petty division of Panwel Subdivision, Thána District, Bombay Presidency. The port is now known as Uran (*q.v.*).

Karanja.—Town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardhá District, Central Provinces; situated on high land surrounded by hills, 41 miles north-west of Wardhá town. Karanja was founded about 270 years ago by Nawáb Muhammad Khán Niázi of Ashtí. It is situated on high land sur-

rounded by hills, but in the intervening valleys are some fine garden lands growing sugar and opium. The population, consisting principally of cultivators, traders, and weavers, numbered in 1881, 3220, made up as follows:—Hindus, 3070; Muhammadans, 148; and aboriginal tribes, 2. Market and school. A good road connects the town with the high road from Nágpur to Amráoti.

Karanja.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár. Lat. 20° 29′ N., long. 77° 32′ E. Population (1867) 11,750; (1881) 10,923, namely, 5631 males and 5292 females. Of the total population, 7689 were returned as Hindus, 2625 Muhammadans, 603 Jains, 3 Pársís, 2 Sikhs, and 1 Christian. A place of some commercial importance. It is said to take its name from an old Hindu saint, Kárinj Rishi, who, being afflicted with a grievous disease, invoked the aid of the goddess Amba, who created for him a tank (still existing opposite the temple of the goddess), in which he bathed and became clean. The wall round the town, built many years ago, is now dilapidated. There is a travellers' bungalow, which was built when the postal road from Nágpur ran through the town. Several ancient temples, the carved woodwork of which is greatly admired.

Karan Khera.—Village in Jagamanpur *jagír*, Jalaun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 20′ N., and long. 79° 34′ E., on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), the channel of which is here obstructed by rocks of *kankar* or calcareous conglomerate, which seriously interfere with navigation.

Karanpurá.—Coal-field in Hazáribágh District, Bengal; lies between 23° 37′ and 23° 57′ N. lat., and between 84° 51′ and 85° 30′ E. long. Area, 472 square miles; greatest length, 42 miles; breadth, 19 miles. It is divided into two tracts by the Dámodar river, and in point of size is inferior only to the Rániganj field of all the coal-fields of the Dámodar valley, although not so important economically as either the Karharbarí, Bokaro, or Jhariá fields. The seams decrease in number in going from east to west. The coal series represented in the field are the Tálcher, Dámodar, and Pánchet. The probable amount of available fuel, after making deductions for 'partings,' and calculating on a coal-bearing area of 250 square miles in the total of 472 included in the field, has been estimated at $8\frac{3}{4}$ billions of tons in the northern, and 75 million tons in the southern field. Regarding the quality, the following assay may be taken as giving a fair measure of the better class of coals:—Carbon, 64·5; volatile matter, 27·0; ash, 8·5. The amount of ash compares favourably with the ordinary Dámodar coals. Iron-ores of good quality occur in abundance in the field, and the manufacture of iron forms one of the industrial features of Hazáribágh District, where many villages are inhabited solely by iron-smelters. Limestone is found along the edge of the field in many places, but not

in sufficient quantity to be available as a flux for large ironworks for a lengthened period.

Karatoyá.—River of Northern Bengal, rising in the Baikunthpur jungle in the extreme north-west of Jalpáigurí District, whence it follows a very winding southerly course into and through Rangpur, until it joins its waters with the Halháliá in the south of Bogra District, and the united stream becomes the PHULJHUR. The topography of this river is attended with numerous difficulties. The vagaries of the TISTA in the last century have left behind a maze of old watercourses and stagnant marshes, so as to render it nearly impossible to trace the course of former rivers. Changes of name are numerous, and in many places an old channel of the Tístá is known indifferently as the Burí Tístá and as the Karto or Karatoyá. That stream ultimately joins the Atrái; but the Karatoyá proper, as above stated, becomes the Phuljhur. It was formerly a first-class river, but is now of minor importance for navigation.

Karattanád.—One of the ancient chieftainships (*náds*) into which Malabár District of the Madras Presidency was formerly divided; situated between 11° 36′ and 11° 48′ N. lat., and between 75° 36′ and 75° 52′ E. long.; stretching from the sea-coast up the western declivity of the Western Gháts. The level tracts near the sea are very fertile, but suffered to such an extent from the devastations of Tipú Sultán, that the people were unable to raise grain sufficient for their support. The eastern hilly parts are well wooded, and contain indigenous cardamom plants. The petty State was founded in 1564 by a Nair chief, who probably inherited it (in the male line) from the Tekkalankúr (Southern Regent) of the Kolattiri kingdom; and he and his successors ruled the country until the invasion of Tipú Sultán. On the expulsion of Tipú in 1792, the Nair Rájá was restored, and his family have held the State ever since. Population, principally Nairs. Chief town, Kuttipuram; lat. 11° 42′ N., long. 75° 44′ E.

Karauli (*Kerowlee*).—Native State in Rájputána, under the political superintendence of the Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Karauli Agency; lies between 26° 3′ and 26° 49′ N. lat., and between 76° 35′ and 77° 26′ E. long. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Sindhia's territory). On the south-west and west it is bounded by Jaipur (Jeypore), and on the north and north-east by the States of Bhartpur (Bhurtpore) and Dholpur respectively. Area, 1208 miles. Population (1881) 148,670 persons.

Physical Aspects.—Hills and broken ground characterize almost the whole territory, which lies within a tract locally termed the 'Dáng,' being the name given to the rugged region which lies above the narrow valley of the Chambal. The principal hills in the State are on the

northern border, where several ranges run along or parallel to the frontier line, forming formidable barriers; but there are no lofty peaks, the highest being less than 1400 feet above sea-level. There is little beauty in these hills, but the military advantages they present caused the selection of one of their eminences as the seat of Jádun rule in early times. Along the valley of the Chambal an irregular and lofty wall of rock separates the lands on the river bank from the uplands, of which the southern part of the State consists. From the summits of the passes fine views are often obtainable, the rocks standing out in striking contrast to the comparatively rich and undulating plain below, through which winds the glittering river. For some miles the country north of these passes is high, and too rocky to be deeply cut by ravines or to be pierced for water, and the few inhabitants depend upon tanks and dams; but farther north the country falls, the alluvial deposit is deeper, level ground becomes more frequent, and hills stand out more markedly, while in the neighbourhood of the city of Karauli (Kerowlee) the low ground is cut into a labyrinth of ravines.

The river Chambal, sometimes deep and slow, sometimes too rocky and rapid to admit of the safe passage of a boat, receives during the rains numerous contributions to its volume, but no considerable perennial stream flows into it within the boundaries of Karauli. The Pánchnad is the only river which rises in the State, and this does not flow into the Chambal. It is so called from its being formed of five streams, which unite 2 miles north of the city. All these five rivulets rise in Karauli territory, and all but one contain water in dry weather, though often only a few inches in depth. The Pánchnad winds away to the north and ultimately joins the Bánganga. The Kálísur or Dángir and the Jirota Nadi drain the country to the south-west of the city. Both are insignificant streams, dry or nearly so most of the year, and flowing into the Morel on the Jaipur border. The sub-surface water throughout the territory is for the most part good. That of the tanks in the high rocky country, above the passes leading into the valley of the Chambal, becomes unwholesome in the hot weather; and the inhabitants often move down with their cattle to the banks of the Chambal, the waters of which, however, have a bad reputation for drinking purposes.

Geology.—The rocks in this territory belong to two series—viz. the Vindhyans and the Quartzites. The latter are only exposed in a narrow ridge extending in a south-westerly direction from Baoli, situated about 8 miles south-west of the city of Karauli, to the Banás river. The rocks of the Vindhyan series cover a large area on both sides of this ridge of quartzites. On the south-east side they form the high land extending in that direction as far as the Chambal. The grand scarp on the left bank of the Chambal, rising in places to upwards

of a thousand feet above the river, is formed entirely of the highest group of this series,—the Bhánrers, which cover a larger area than all the other groups put together. In fact, they cover the whole of Karauli, with the exception of that portion north-west of the quartzite ridge. Over the greater part of this area, the Bhánrers are nearly horizontal, but along a portion of their north-western boundary they are a good deal contorted. The Bhánrer sandstones are generally very fine in texture, but in some places there are coarse, almost conglomeratic beds. In colour they are purple, white, yellow, and red, with patches or spots of white. The last is the common variety. In the grand scarp on the left bank of the Chambal, a good section of the Bhánrers is exposed. The limestone is light blue, brownish, or yellow in colour; in places largely crystalline, and often containing strings and veins of calcite; the lower beds sometimes include bands and nodules of chert. Above the limestone to the top of the scarp there are between 600 and 700 feet of the Sirbu shales, consisting of several alternations of shales and sandstones.

The Vindhyans on the north-west side of the quartzite ridge belong to the two lowest groups of the upper Vindhyas, namely, the Káimur and the Rewá. The mineral resources of the Vindhyan rocks are chiefly confined to building stone of excellent quality, and limestone. The palace of Fatehpur Sikri, and portions of the Táj Mahal at Agra, are built of the upper Bhánrer sandstone, quarried a short distance from Karauli. The Bhánrer limestone is in many places largely burned for lime. Through the greater portion of the State red sandstone abounds, and in parts, near the city especially, white sandstone blends with it. In many localities the villages are built entirely of stone, the roofs even being formed of loosely-placed, overlapping slabs. Iron-ore is found in the hills north-east of Karauli, but the mines will not pay working expenses; and the iron manufactured in the State is smelted from imported ore.

Forest and Jungle Products.—The hills of Karauli, especially the higher ones, are generally bare of trees, but there are many exceptions. Above the Chambal valley, the commonest tree growing in any quantity together is the *dáo* (Lythrum fruticosum), which is scarcely more than a shrub. Other common trees are the *dhák* (Butea frondosa), several kinds of acacias, and also the cotton-tree (Bombax), the *sál* (Shorea robusta), the *garjan* (Dipterocarpus alatus), and the *ním* (Melia azadirachta). But the more valuable timber-trees are not numerous anywhere throughout the State. There is no forest, but groves of trees producing timber for the city are grown some 10 miles south-west of Karauli.

Fauna.—In the wooded glens near the Chambal, there are tigers, bears, *sámbhar*, *nilgái*, and deer. In the uplands, also, game is

found near water, but it is nowhere abundant. In the neighbourhood of the town there are several covers for game and grass preserves. Hares, brown partridge, quail, and golden plover are the most common kinds of small game. In the large tanks water-fowl are to be found; and in the Chambal wild geese, cranes and wild duck abound, and also otters and crocodiles. In the west of the State snakes are numerous; near the city there are few. Fish are plentiful in the Chambal, in the streams near the city, and in the larger tanks.

Population.—The total population of the State in 1874 was estimated at about 140,000, calculated from a return of the number of houses in the State, five individuals being allowed to each house. This estimate appears to have been a close approximation to the truth, for the regular Census of 1881, taken on the 17th February, returned the total population at 148,670; the males numbering 80,645, the females 68,025; dwelling in 1 town and 861 villages; number of houses, 25,930; number of persons per house, 5·7; number of persons per square mile, 123. Classified according to religion, the Hindus numbered 139,237; Muhammadans, 8836; Jains, 580; and Christians, 17. Among the Hindus are included 22,174 Bráhmans, 8182 Rájputs, 9620 Mahájans and Baniyás, 15,112 Gujars, 27,819 Mínas, 18,278 Chamárs, 808 Játs, and 37,244 'others.' The bulk of the Bráhmans are petty traders, who carry their merchandise on small pack-cattle, which are their own property. The Mínas, who are cultivators, form the most numerous class in the State. The Rájputs, though numerically few, constitute the most important class. They are almost entirely composed of families of the Jádun clan (to which the Mahárájá belongs); and, like other Rájputs, the Jádun is a brave soldier, but a bad agriculturist. The feudal aristocracy of the State consists entirely of Jádun *thákurs* (nobles) connected with the ruling house. They pay a tribute in lieu of constant military service, which is not performed in Karauli; but on military or State emergency they are bound to attend with their retainers, who on these occasions are maintained at the expense of the Rájá. The number of Muhammadans is insignificant everywhere but in the city of Karauli, where Patháns compose the most trusted portion of the State troops. The worship of Vishnu under the name of Krishna is the prevalent form of religion among the Hindus.

Agriculture.—The soil throughout the State is generally light. Except on the banks of the Chambal, where wheat, barley, gram, and tobacco are grown, and in the rocky tracts above, where rice is the chief product, *bájra* (Pennisetum typhoideum) and *joár* (Sorghum vulgare) cover a larger portion of the cultivated area than any other crops, and form the staple food of the population. Sugar-cane is grown on a small scale, but it is not of a fine kind.

Hemp is grown extensively in the neighbourhood of the city of Karauli. There are three modes of irrigation—from tanks, from wells, and from the rise of the Chambal Tanks, formed by dams being thrown across the line of rain-drainage, are the principal means of irrigation in the rocky and hilly portions of Karauli. In the beds of these tanks rice is grown in the rainy season, and the stored water often makes possible a grain crop in the spring. Well irrigation is chiefly employed in the country surrounding the capital. In the valley of the Chambal, it is only on the verge of the receding water that a crop can be produced through the influence of the river. The banks are usually too high to place the water-line within the reach of irrigating wells. A temporary settlement, based on the payments of the five years ending 1882, is in operation.

Manufactures and Trade.—There are very few manufactures in Karauli; a little weaving, dyeing, some wood-turning and stone-cutting form the employment of a small class, but the people are almost exclusively agriculturists. The principal imports are piece-goods, salt, sugar, cotton, buffaloes, and bullocks; the chief exports are rice, cotton, and goats.

Administration.—A considerable part of the revenue is raised from customs, although, of course, the land revenue brings in the greater portion. The gross revenue of Karauli in 1881 amounted to £48,381, and the expenditure to £42,958. There is no regular police force in the State, with the exception of a small body of 25 men kept up in the city for that purpose. The police duties in the rural parts are performed by the troops. Judicial work is carried on in the criminal court at Karauli and in the *tahsíldárs'* courts. There is a central jail at Karauli city, where there is also a post-office and a mint at which silver coins are struck. The Karauli rupee is about equal in value to the British rupee. An English and Persian school was established at the capital in 1864, where there are also 7 Hindu schools. Education in the State is generally backward. There is one well-appointed hospital in the city of Karauli, but there are no dispensaries in the outlying tracts. The erection of dispensaries at Mandrel, Sapotra, and Machilpur is contemplated. A military force is maintained of 160 cavalry, 1770 infantry, 32 artillerymen, with 40 light guns. These troops hold the following 12 masonry forts of the State, viz. Karauli city, Uthgarh, Mandrel, Naroli, Sapotra, Daulatpura, Thálí, Jambúra, Khúda, Ninda, Und, and Khodai.

Climate, etc.—The rainfall at Karauli city amounted to 30·8 inches in 1881. Fever, dysentery, and rheumatism are the prevailing diseases. Epidemic disease rarely penetrates into the State.

History.—The Mahárájá of Karauli, Arjun Pál, is the head of the Jádun clan of Rájputs, who claim descent from Krishna, and are

regarded as *Yaduvánsi*, or descendants of the moon. The clan has always remained in or near the country of Braj round Muttra (Mathura), and once held Biána, which was taken from them by the Muhammadans in 1053 A.D. In 1454, Karauli was conquered by Mahmúd Khiljí, King of Málwá. After the conquest of Málwá by Akbar, the State became incorporated with the Delhi Empire; and on the decline of the Mughal power it appears to have been so far subjugated by the Maráthás that they exacted from it a tribute of £2500 annually. This tribute was transferred to the British in 1817 by the Peshwá, and was remitted by Government on the engagement of the Mahárájá to furnish troops according to his means on the requisition of the British Government; at the same time, the State was taken under British protection.

In 1852, Mahárájá Narsingh Pál died, and there being no direct successor, the question was debated whether the State should lapse to the British Government. It was finally determined to preserve the succession; and an heir was found in Mahárájá Madan Pál, who during the Mutiny of 1857 evinced a loyal spirit, and eventually sent a body of troops against the Kotah mutineers. For these services he was created a G.C.S.I.; his salute was raised from 15 to 17 guns for his lifetime; a debt of £11,700 due by him to the British Government was remitted, and a dress of honour conferred. Madan Pál died in 1869, and the three chiefs who have succeeded him have each been selected by adoption. In 1883, a Council of regency, divided into three departments, conducted the internal administration of the State.

Karauli (*Kerowlee*).—Capital of the Native State of Karauli, in Rájputána; situated about 75 miles equidistant from Muttra, Gwalior, Agra, Alwar (Ulwur), Jaipur (Jeypore), and Tonk. Lat. 26° 30′ N., long. 77° 4′ E. It is said to derive its name from Kaliánjí, a temple built by Arjun Deo, who likewise founded the city, about A.D. 1348. But it did not prosper, owing to the depredations of the Mínás, until these were put down by Rájá Gopál Dás, in whose reign Karauli became a considerable town, and fine buildings began to spring up. In 1881 the population was returned at 25,607 souls; Hindus numbering 19,829; Muhammadans, 5339; and 'others,' 439.

Viewed from points whence the palace is seen to advantage, the town has a striking appearance. It is surrounded by a wall of sandstone, and is also protected on the north and east by deep winding ravines, cut by the action of water in the level plain. These, if properly defended, would probably prove an insuperable obstacle to unscientific invaders. To the south and west, the ground is comparatively level, but advantage has been taken of a conveniently situated watercourse to form a moat to the city wall; while an outer wall and ditch defended

by bastions has been carried along the other bank, so forming a double line of defence. These fortifications are due to Rájá Gopál Dás, and though too strong for the desultory attacks of the Maráthás, would be far less formidable to regular troops than were the mud walls of Bhartpur.

The sandstone wall of Karauli, in spite of its handsome appearance, is unsubstantially built, being composed of ill-cemented stones, faced by thin slabs after the fashion which prevails throughout the State wherever sandstone is abundant and buildings of any pretension are erected. The circumference of the town is somewhat under 2¼ miles, and it contains 6 gates, besides 11 posterns. Bráhmans and Mahájans are the most important classes. The streets are narrow and irregular, impassable for carriages, and difficult for any wheeled conveyance. The late Mahárájá Jai Singh Pál made a commencement of paving the streets, and built an extensive *sarái* for the accommodation of merchants and travellers. The most striking characteristic is the superabundance of sandstone, as the sole building material. The roofs of the poorer houses are formed of slabs, sloping and overlapping one another very roughly, but not ineffectively arranged, and supported by logs of wood or long triangular pieces of stone. The principal *bázár* stretches east from the westernmost gate towards the palace. It is about half a mile in length, but irregular and wanting in neatness. There are many costly houses and handsome temples.

The palace is 200 yards from the eastern wall of the city, and occupies a space of about 150 yards square. In its present state it was erected by Rájá Gopál Dás. The whole block of buildings is surrounded by a lofty bastioned wall, in which there are two fine gates. Within the palace, the Rang Mahal and Diwán-i-Am, with their mirrors and fine colours, are beautiful specimens of native ornament. The Madan Mohanjí, though the chief temple in the town, is of no great beauty. The Saroman temple is a handsome building of red sandstone, decorated with elegant tracery, in the modern Muttra style. The principal gardens are those of Shikárganj, Shikár Mahal, and Khawas Mahal. European visitors are generally accommodated in the building within the Khawas Mahal. Post-office, dispensary, and school.

Karchhána (or *Arail*).—The central *tahsíl* of the three *tahsíls* to the south of the Jumna in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces. It is conterminous with *parganá* Arail, and is surrounded on the north, east, and south by the Jumna, Ganges, and Tons rivers, and bounded on the west by Bárah *tahsíl*. Karchhána is an irregular-shaped tract, consisting of lands of a very varied character. To the extreme west, the stone hills and black soil valleys of Bárah *tahsíl* are

found in a few villages; but most of the land on the Bárah borders is low-lying clay soil (*matiyár*). A strip of fine level loam running north-west and south-east lies north of the clay tract, and extends to the confluence of the Ganges and the Tons. East of this is a low-lying tract of land, flanked by a high bank, evidently an old bed of the Ganges. Water lies close to the surface, and the land is so moist as to dispense with the necessity for irrigation. Except this low-lying tract, the country along the three rivers consists of strips of high-lying, undulating land, much cut up by drainage lines. Below these, on the Ganges and Jumna, there are at intervals patches of rich alluvial land and large tracts of sandy waste. There is also a tract of alluvial land at the confluence of the Ganges and the Tons, and two islands in the bed of the former river. These are liable at any time to have their value largely increased by alluvial deposits; or, on the other hand, to be entirely washed away by floods.

The original inhabitants of the *tahsíl* are said to have been Bhars, and traces of them still remain in the ruined mounds of earth and brick which mark the site of their forts. From the western portion along the Jumna, the Bhars were driven by Irádat Khán, the reputed ancestor of the present Pathán *zamíndárs*. The northern portion along the Ganges was taken by Bais Rájputs, whose descendants claim to have held their land since the days of Akbar. The east of the *tahsíl* was occupied by Hirápuri Pándes; and the south by a branch of the Kanauj royal family of Gaharwár Rájputs. The predominating cultivating classes at the present day are Bráhmans, Kurmís, Rájputs, and Ahírs.

Karchhána *tahsíl* is densely populated, with a pressure of 471·8 persons per square mile. Total population (1881) 124,094, namely, 62,698 males and 61,396 females. Hindus numbered 115,113; Muhammadans, 8942; Jains, 2; and Christians, 37. Of the 339 villages, 265 contained less than five hundred inhabitants, and only one had upwards of three thousand. Area of the *tahsíl*, 263 square miles, of which 169 square miles are cultivated, 45 square miles are cultivable, and 49 square miles barren and waste. Government land revenue (1881), £26,663, or including local rates and cesses levied on land, £31,149. Amount of rent, including cesses paid by cultivators, £44,432. The *tahsíl* is intersected by the main line of the East Indian Railway, and by the Jabalpur extension of the same line. The metalled high road between Allahábád and Nágpur runs through the west of the *tahsíl*, which is also crossed by several good unmetalled roads. In 1883, the *tahsíl* contained one criminal court, with two police stations (*tahsíls*); strength of regular police, 33 men, with 261 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen.

Karchhána.—Village in Allahábád District, North-Western Pro-

vinces, and head-quarters of Karchhana *tahsil*; situated 13 miles south-east of Allahabad city, with which it is connected by an unmetalled road. Lat. 25° 17' 2" N., long. 81° 57' 32" E. A neat little village, with a population of 801 souls, and a station on the East Indian Railway. Besides the usual sub-divisional courts and offices, the village contains an imperial post-office, police station, and Anglo-vernacular school.

Kardong.—Village in Kangra District, Punjab, in the Sub-division of Lahul. Lies on the left bank of the Bhaga, almost immediately opposite Kielang. It is the largest and most striking village in the Lahul valley, with better built houses than in other villages.